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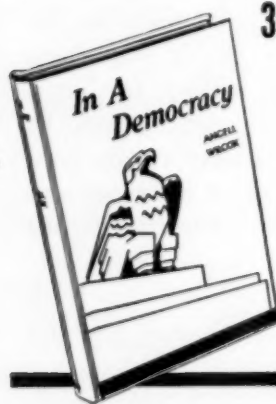
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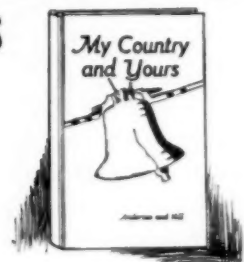
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The Social Studies

Continuing The Historical Outlook

VOLUME XXXIII, NUMBER 6

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The Impact of War on Industrial Technology

SAMUEL M. LEVIN

Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan

The view that "technology is the fundamental basis of modern civilization," and that "of all the ideas pertinent . . . to the interpretation of what has gone on during the past two hundred years and is going on in the world, none is more relevant than technology"¹ voiced by Charles A. Beard about a decade ago, may well be recalled in this period when America finds herself enmeshed in the techniques and compulsions of total war. The victory against the mighty military combination, now seeking to destroy American freedom, institutions and ways of life, though calling for resources of spirit and a fortitude that stem from ideals and conviction, is, nevertheless, inconceivable without the attainment of maximum efficiency with respect to production and flow of necessary war goods. Nor is it to be imagined that, in the light of the vastness of the forces arrayed against America and her allies, the prolonged preparedness effort of the enemy powers, and the cumulative benefits of their numerous victories in all parts of the world, a mere partial, half-hearted accommodation to this requirement will suffice. Mr. Donald M. Nelson showed a realization of this problem

when he said in his address of March 10, 1942: "We on the production lines must abandon every other consideration except increasing production and increasing it every day."

The key to an understanding of the technological developments of the current period is found in the fact that they are a part of a texture of total war. Total war as ordained and perfected by Hitler implies new economic motives, aims, techniques, and conceptions of economic efficiency and of the place of the consumer in the economic system. It means: (1) a concentration of aim on a complete all-round organization of the national economy for the production and delivery of necessary war munitions; not automobiles, radios, oil burners, vacuum cleaners, and refrigerators, but tanks, bombers, destroyers, submarines, anti-aircraft guns and the like; (2) substitution of the economic and cultural efficiency that builds up hard-hitting armies, air forces, and navies for the efficiency of profit-making units, of individual welfare, of higher standard of living, of liberty and pursuit of happiness; (3) the sacrifice of civilian wants for the wants of armament factories that feed these armies, navies and air forces; (4) a program of central planning, coordination, and unification

¹ J. B. Bury, *The Idea of Progress* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1932), pp. xx-xxi.

of the national economy under governmental command.

The experience of anti-Axis nations has demonstrated the fact that in a struggle for survival against a ruthless enemy that is using technically more effective and telling methods of warfare, it is suicidal to stand pat. It is not surprising therefore that American war economy evidences a concentration on such tactics as planning, conversion, man-power mobilization, and centralization. There is, to be sure, the problem of adjusting this type of approach to the traditions of freedom and democracy, but there is no way of dodging it. The President has voiced the need in the words: "We Americans will contribute unified production and unified acceptance of sacrifice and effort." The Tolan Committee (of the House of Representatives) in its *Third Interim Report* presents the problem even more challengingly. It declares: "There is no phase of our economic life which can be unessential in total war. Every phase must be planned, must be guided, must be brought under central administrative control. Total war requires that our vast economic system be operated along the organizational lines of a single industrial plant."²

This, of course, does not mean the indiscriminate rejection of the established techniques of the past. The substratum of the current innovations is found in the variety of methods to attain industrial efficiency, brought to the fore by our capitalistic society, since the day when Adam Smith explained how division of labor augments labor's productive powers, e.g., round-about production, time and labor saving devices, large scale methods, integration, new mechanisms to harness the powers of nature, scientific management, standardization, up-to-date personnel policies centering on improved labor morale, utilization of waste materials, etc. These methods are characteristic of the propulsive forward movement of modern industrial techniques that supply the dynamic force enabling man to achieve the end of controlling nature. But the stupendous requirements of the world struggle impose a special responsibility on management, labor, and government to apply boldly to the technological system a fresh point of view. Reorienting itself in terms of an integrated national or even international economy, technology is in a position to develop new opportunities for creativeness and constructive achievement.

It is evident that the new task of technological development pertains to the greater importance of unification of the multifarious parts of our bewilderingly complicated economic mechanism. It points to the over-all approach—to ideas that relate to the whole. In a sense the present course of development is a culmination of forces latent in the very order of

modern industrialism. About a quarter of a century ago Thorstein Veblen wrote: "It is also of the essence of this industrial system and its technology that it necessarily involves the industrial community as a whole, its working population and its material resources, and the means of its successful operation is determined by the effectual teamwork of its constituent parts."³ This, indeed, is a fair statement of the crux of the technological problem confronting our nation, from the structural as well as the functional standpoint, if the industrial system is to achieve the end of a maximization of its productive potentialities.

Viewing the subject matter in this wide sense implies the necessity of ignoring any sharp lines of demarcation between the area conventionally embraced by the term technology and the broad economic hinterland outside. In a tightly knit economy, the technical operations of research laboratories, of shipyards and of factories may be hampered or seriously retarded by the failure to deal effectively with any one of a numerous array of such problems as price control, internal migrations, training, labor morale, installment buying or taxation. Such failures reflect themselves in the inevitable cropping up of obstacles, bottlenecks, and complications that interfere with productive efficiency and the success of the war effort. It is interesting, to note that in comment on "problems to be solved" and on handicapping factors, Mr. Nelson lists such things as "a lack of imagination in seeing how production can be increased," training of new men, shortages of specialized facilities, the necessity of providing materials and machines for our allies, war contracts and discrimination in the labor field. Everywhere there is a blurring of the lines between the sphere of activity looked upon as strictly technological and adjacent economic areas.

The teamwork is manifesting itself in a number of developments that shade off from the conventional to the strangely unfamiliar. Illustrations of the first category are: (1) a production drive, centering on the use of production schedules, shop quotas, scoreboards, and awards of merit;⁴ (2) the "exploding technique," defined by the Tolan Committee as a "subdivision of major armaments into simpler component parts which can be manufactured by smaller plants"; (3) new applications of mass production as, for example, in the shipbuilding, tank and airplane industries; (4) the setting up in industry of special means to facilitate cooperation between com-

² Thorstein Veblen, *The Vested Interests and the State of the Industrial Arts* (New York: Viking Press, 1919), p. 52.

⁴ At a press conference, some weeks after this plan was announced by Donald M. Nelson, President Roosevelt indicated that he did not agree with his production czar. He pointed out, according to press reports, that he did not want to see the piece-work system extended into war times, and that the vast majority of American workers would turn out all they could irrespective of bonus plans. See *Detroit News*, April 8, 1942.

³ *Third Interim Report of Tolan Committee*, March 9, 1942, p. 6.

panies in pooling experiences, in the sale or lease of equipment, in allocations of certain divisions of research, and in the exchange of ideas and technical information.

But there are more difficult matters. An outstanding example is Nelson's request of March 2 to management and workers engaged in primary war production to set up joint labor-management production committees to concentrate on ways of stepping up productive efficiency in the plants. Another is the procurement set-up, with respect to which the Tolan Committee has written: "The heart of our problem is procurement. Those who determine procurement procedures determine the course of the war effort. To date authority over procurement has been divided and output has suffered." The Committee asks for a centralization of the work of procurement in a single agency, and for a coupling of this central control with "regional war procurement and production planning boards," vested with authority to allocate contracts, sufficient to make use of the facilities of small and medium sized plants.⁵ There is the far-reaching program of industrial conversion, which has already shut down the source of supply of divers lines of civilian goods from consumers' markets, and related problems of organizing and administering transportation, man power, price control, rationing, and agriculture. There are the vexing issues of the forty hour week, overtime, the representation of labor on the production front, and the determination of policy by the President's Committee on Fair Employment Practice in so new a field as anti-discrimination.

These things have brought into the picture new agencies such as the Office of Price Administration, the War Production Board with its numerous industry branches, the Office of Defense Transportation, to coordinate transportation policies, and the War Manpower Commission to deal with plans, basic policies, legislative programs, and data pertaining to effective mobilization and utilization of the manpower of the country. These and other agencies have brought such men as Henderson, Nelson, Eastman and McNutt into the limelight, men who symbolize the new requirements and techniques.

All this means that our economy is moving into unfamiliar territory, where one encounters restraints on customary economic liberties, new motives, and such a device as the negotiated contract; where price ceilings are fixed and wages stabilized, and where goods are not produced to be exchanged for one another to satisfy peoples' wants, but are brought into existence in stupendous quantities to satisfy one customer, the government. There is the overshadowing fact that the pecuniary criteria, as evaluative norms in the economic field are giving way to

the technological, since salvation in this kind of war depends, not on money profits, but on scientific research, invention, raw materials, war equipment, transport, and up-to-date technical methods. The sharp curtailment or disappearance of numerous classes of consumers' goods together with enforced simplification, rationing, and credit control creates new kinds of problems in the consumer area. Dealing with priorities, allocations, manpower mobilization, price ceilings and rentals, brings government into an obscure realm where the road ahead is uncertain and where administration must feel its way.

As a result of these developments, unique situations have arisen: areas of experiment, trial and error, and of controversy, with respect to which there is little or no precedent to draw on. At the same time, the seriousness of the crisis puts a premium on rapid shifts in policy that militate against habit and inertia; against the ideas of men in government and industry whose minds are still grooved to peacetime routine.⁶ The conflict of opinion over the "Reuther Plan," publicized a year before Pearl Harbor, "to convert idle automotive machinery into plane engine machinery,"⁷ exemplifies this type of problem.

Some elements of American business have been slow to grasp the implications of an economy that is no longer controlled by customary market relationships, such as competition, supply and demand, cost,⁸ and the quest for money. Mr. Charles E. Wilson, president of the General Motors Corporation, concerned with the importance of the proper definition of authority and responsibility in industry, has been none too sanguine about the labor-management production committees. "Joint committees," he remarked, "usually are alibi committees." The pecuniary bias has cropped up as a retarding factor in adjustment to the needs of the economic transition, in difficulties with concerns which according to the government have violated priority rules resulting in diversion "to their private customers" of large quantities of critically needed goods, in Secretary Jesse H. Jones' slow and halting policy in connection with the \$500,000,000 given him by Congress to develop raw material resources of Latin American countries.

In the background of the technological problems confronting the nation is the fact that our technological system is being strained to its limits. There is

⁵ Of interest in this regard is Sir William Beveridge's warning to the people of Great Britain against "ways of thoughts and action which are desirable in peace but dangerous in war." "When we beat ploughshares into swords," he writes, "we should exchange . . . profit for service, party for state, procrastination for speed." *The Times*, London, March 17, 1942.

⁶ Walter P. Reuther, *500 Planes a Day*, p. 7.

⁸ The policy of emphasis on low unit costs has been condemned "as an incorrect and dangerous transfer of peacetime concepts to the war economy," resulting in turning over an excessive number of orders to a few large corporations to the neglect of subcontracting with smaller concerns. *Tolan Committee Report*, p. 8.

⁵ *Tolan Committee Report*, p. 9.

the need to overcome painful shortages of power, metals, rubber, machine tools, skilled labor, finished goods, time, and transportation. This condition moreover is complicated by the manner in which these scarcities are tangled into a snarl of crisscrossing relationships. Under the circumstances, it is perhaps too much to expect an accurate specification of the significance of a single factor, though Nelson has declared that "the shortage of time is the most serious." There can be no doubt, however, that the far-flung conversion of civilian manufacturing plants to war production, the slowing down of new factory construction, the underscoring of the importance of salvage, the development of substitute products, and emphasis on full utilization of plant and on speed are inevitable consequences of this situation.

Whereas there was some tendency before the war to take our speed system to task and to examine it critically,⁹ the current attitude toward speed is well brought out by the President's words: "Speed will count. . . . Speed will save lives; speed will save this nation which is in peril; speed will save our freedom and civilization. . . ."¹⁰ Such are the feelings and the needs in the background of the pressure to bring our technological apparatus to the height of its productive powers.

It is this overwhelming sense of urgency which is responsible for the pressure on labor standards. In England it has manifested itself in attempts to reduce labor mobility, the "complete control of the allocation of all men and women of working age," the prohibition in specified industries and occupations of hiring, rehiring or advertising for employees, except with the special consent of the Ministry of Labor and National Service, and relaxation of rules pertaining to limitations upon the hours of labor. It is the same complex of conditions that has greatly widened the influx of women into industry, put a premium on labor and time-saving installations, smoothed the way for the labor-management committees (in many industrial units of the country), and led to federal anti-discrimination measures necessary to shore up labor morale. From diverse quarters influences have been exerted on the technological system to raise it to an unprecedented crescendo of activity, though it may be noted that the main objective of this general speed-up is to uproot the causes that have brought the war and these very conditions into existence.

But this intensification of effort cannot be carried to the point of ignoring the deteriorating backwash of fatigue, unrest, accidents, turnover, absenteeism and low morale. Thus in England, after the disaster

of Dunkirk, the working week in some occupations was stepped up to quotas of from 70 to 80 hours, on a seven day basis; but it was soon learned that this was more likely to decrease output than increase it. Professor J. Douglas Brown writes in respect to American workers: "There is striking evidence that hours beyond 48, and particularly beyond 54, cause in time a reduction in individual output and an increase in number of days missed from work."¹¹

Leaders of labor have justly stressed the bearing of reasonable hours, fair wages and working conditions on labor morale. It is well brought out in Mr. Bernard M. Baruch's comment on the forty-hour week: "A change in the law might make things cost less, but it would not mean increased production which is the thing we are thinking most about."¹² As to the charge that the basic 40-hour week has resulted in an undue reduction in weekly hours of employment, Secretary of Labor, Miss Frances Perkins, has made the following statement: "Outside of the continuous process industries, the customary shifts in defense plants are 48, 55 or 60 hours. Seven out of every ten of the workers in these plants are on a schedule of 48 hours or more, and average 46 hours or more of actual working time, even after allowing for absenteeism and labor turnover."¹³

It is obvious that the technological developments and economic change overs necessitated by the war effort must be seen against a background of industrial relationships, since the requirement of the smooth operation of the nation's industrial machinery in this period makes it crucially important that wastes due to industrial strife, slow-downs, turnover, accidents, low morale and the like be reduced to a minimum. With respect to this problem, it is important to note, in the first place, that organized labor is now a more potent factor in the economic field than ever before in our history and that both the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organization stand devotedly behind the President in the prosecution of the war. "We know that this is labor's war," declared President Philip Murray in a call to C.I.O. members for unstinted efforts at production. Even before Pearl Harbor, President William Green addressing the 1941 Convention of the American Federation of Labor, at Seattle, on October 6, expressed himself as follows: "We are going to advise the President of the United States that we will give all we have in support of his program, that we will stand by him and behind him . . . and we will tell him further that if it is necessary to take more decisive action in order to maintain freedom of the seas and to protect democracy

⁹ See Samuel M. Levin, "The Economic Aspects of Modern Speed," *Papers of the Michigan Academy of Science, Arts, and Letters*, X, 137-148.

¹⁰ Message to Congress, January 6, 1942.

¹¹ *New York Times*, April 5, 1942.

¹² Quoted in *New Republic*, March 30, 1942, p. 412.

¹³ *Labor*, March 10, 1942.

throughout the world, we will stand by him and follow to the bitter end."

Some unusual developments involving meaningful techniques of cooperation have already taken place, notably the no-strike policy for the duration of the war; the movement toward greater labor unity, by the creation of the Combined Labor Victory Board (consisting of representatives of the American Federation of Labor and the Congress of Industrial Organizations) to collaborate with the President on all issues affecting the war program; the forming in many sections of the country of joint victory committees on city wide and state wide bases; and the plan of jointly negotiating agreements with employers, as for example, in the electrical wiring industry, for uniform contracts.¹⁴ Nor have these measures failed to yield notable results. Thus a recent decision of the National War Labor Board affirmed, among other things, that the no-strike pledge had been an amazing success, and that strikes in war industries during the first quarter of the current year resulted in the loss of less than 6/100 of 1 per cent of all time worked in war production. "History," declared the Board, "affords no parallel to the success of this voluntary agreement between labor, management, and the government."¹⁵

This does not mean the absence of all friction. The setting aside of the right to strike has occasioned fears and suspicions in the ranks of labor on the grounds of delays of employers in collective bargaining and refusal on their part "to treat in good faith with workers who are seeking improvements in their working conditions or adjustments of their grievances."¹⁶ It has created some doubt as to whether employers are making equal sacrifices and precipitated a bitter controversy as to whether the "union security" issue (i.e., the principle that workers who voluntarily join the union should remain in good standing for the life of the union contracts at the plants) comes within the scope of problems which the National Labor Relations Board may determine.

Organized labor's impassioned anti-fascist policy and its dedication to the idea of victory for human freedom, have served as a stimulus to originality, creativeness, and broader interests and views on national problems. This reaction is perhaps best symbolized in the "Reuther Plan" which though imperfect in its technical features, at least reflected in the closing months of 1940 a deeper understanding of the desperate plight of the democratic cause and the need for quick, planned (even though partial) industrial conversion than was shown by the heads of the automobile industry or industry in general. Moreover organized labor showed an appreciation of the

fact that this reorientation could not be brought about by rule of thumb or routine methods; that on the contrary it would require a new technological approach in terms of a unitary point of view.

Thus, we note labor's enlarging interests and ideas reaching out far beyond the limits of ordinary collective bargaining; taking up defense agencies, war finance, price-fixing, rationing, the coordination of production facilities, numerous ways of increasing efficiency, problems of management, morale, etc. Labor's creative thinking with regard to production has already manifested itself in the joint labor-management production committees as well as in special plans for particular industries.¹⁷ The President's recent establishment of a labor production division within the War Production Board, supplanting the previously established labor division of the Board, to give labor greater influence in dealing with concrete production problems in industry, is a recognition of labor's potentialities in this field.

But the technological forces are exerting their influences through all the areas of economic life and impinging on all classes of labor. For millions of workers previously connected with civilian goods industries, there has been a forced deviation from the groove of routine specialization. Vast numbers are being retrained with the help of such programs as the training within an industry (TWI), upgrading, refresher courses, NYA and CCC training courses, and defense programs in vocational schools. Never has the role of women in industry stood out more prominently than it does at the present time. Multitudes of women are being drawn into the new environment of machinery, change and speed, finding themselves exposed to all the conditions and hazards of the modern technology. They are becoming involved in the intricate web of modern industrial relationships, in the labor organizing movement and in labor legislation, and are helping to establish industry more distinctly as a field for the joint efforts of the two sexes. Indeed, an inventory of human resources provided by the 1940 Census indicates that "the largest part of the nation's labor reserve consists of women whose usual activity is home housework."

The institution of manpower mobilization opens possibilities of labor priorities, of the transfer of workers from non-essential to war industries (i.e., a redistribution of men and women to essential jobs rather than the old-line emphasis on the securing of jobs) and of the centralization, contraction or elimination of non-essential civilian industries. Mr. Paul V. McNutt, chief of the War Manpower Commission

¹⁴ *New York Times*, April 5, 1942.

¹⁵ *Ibid.*, April 26, 1942.

¹⁶ *United Automobile Worker*, April 15, 1942.

¹⁷ Note, for example, the proposals of the Farm Equipment Workers Organizing Committee to the OPM on ways of increasing production in the farm equipment industry. *The C.I.O. News*, January 5, 1942.

has spoken of a ban on "hoarding of skilled men" by employers and on the "pirating and unsystematic movement" of workers. It is even conceivable that the very need to protect the armed forces from unreasonable withholding of men by industrial managers may require a system of inspection to see that efficient methods are employed and that latest technological improvements are installed. Hosts of workers will learn the meaning in the technological sense of what Spengler called "collective doing by plan."

One must also take note of the fact that the great upheavals in the technological order have generated some new situations involving hazard and what may perhaps be termed minus factors in the economic complex. Of leading importance is the increased hazard of industrial accident. "Data now available indicate that there may be some 1,500 more fatal accidents to persons at work in 1941 than in 1940," declares the December 1941 issue of the *Statistical Bulletin of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company*, a situation that is to be attributed not merely to a greater total in number of hours of employment, but to the employment of older men and of young men at new jobs, to new processes, speed-up, long hours, placing old machines back into operation, and less careful inspection of machines used in multiple shifts.

There is the impending "drastic reduction in our standards of living," to use the President's own words (especially in respect to numerous categories of durable or semi-durable goods), and the possibility, in the absence of effective controls, "of a dangerous increase in the cost of living." Important in this connection is the fact that the lower standards are not due to depression and unemployment but to such things as shortages, conversion, and to economies in the use of critical materials. This means that a factor hitherto in the limelight, namely the technological displacement of labor, partially offset in the past by reduction of hours (without loss of wage income), reduction in prices, and the development of new industries, is receding into insignificance under the abnormal conditions now prevailing. There is no denying that workers have suffered from "disemployment" in the industries affected by material shortages, priorities, and the sudden and rapid changeover process, but this evil is temporary. The economy as a whole needs augmentations in manpower greatly exceeding the normal quotas of supply.

We may experience some ebbing of research and invention in the domain of civilian goods constricted by war needs, if the following situations described by the General Motors Corporation is typical. "Thus we see that the technical ability of the Corporation, starting from its research activity and embracing its engineering and development departments . . . is now devoted exclusively to the new and vital objec-

tive of helping to win the war."¹⁸ War turns the thought of our most ingenious inventors, technicians, and scientists to war technics and away from theory and ordinary consumer markets.

On the other hand many of the inventions, products, and processes useful in war are also serviceable in peace. To the extent that these are developed in the war period, they benefit the public. The Haber process for synthesizing ammonia, perfected in Germany in the last war has been a great boon to the fertilizer industry. It has been pointed out that studies of gas liberated when guns are fired gave both chemistry and physics an enormous impetus, and that blood banks, control of typhus, and new techniques for operating on the brain have stemmed from war. Mr. John H. VanDeventer, editor of *The Iron Age* has called attention to the fact that users of production machinery "are getting an intensive education in the use of alternative materials, in waste reduction and salvage, and in managerial efficiency." He forecasts that, after the war our motor cars, thanks to the experience the automotive industry is getting in aircraft manufacture and in the use of light metals, such as aluminum or magnesium, will run forty miles to the gallon of gas. The war has stimulated thought on industrial planning, organizational efficiency and labor-management relationships. Of outstanding significance is the continuing progress in the development of synthetics. The Ford Motor Company, we are told, is now experimenting with plastic cars made of soy beans, and the plastic industry in general has broadened its field to embrace a diversified array of goods from airplane fuselages to hair curlers.

It is certain that the extraordinary developments of the war period must leave their imprint on the human mind and influence human attitudes and behavior. Many new millions of men and women will find themselves thrust in the dynamic environment of modern machine technology, where as Veblen says "the ruling norm is the highly impersonal, not to say brutal concept, of mechanical process," . . . a logic of "masses, velocities, strains, and thrusts. . ."¹⁹ It is to be expected that under the impact of the new influences, a deeper consciousness of the importance of masses of people, of the function of planned integrated economic enterprise, of joint relationship in industry and of the primacy of common needs (as embodied in government policy) should arise. On the other hand, involvement in this world of rapid change, uncertainty, confusion, and conflicting impressions exposes the masses to influences that tend to undermine stability and to make conduct more erratic. It becomes easier to discredit the past.

¹⁸ *Thirty Third Annual Report of General Motors Corporation*, Year Ended, December 31, 1941, p. 48.

¹⁹ Thorstein Veblen, *The Instinct of Workmanship* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1918), p. 241.

As Professor Edward A. Ross has said "One forms a habit of breaking habits."

The prodigious effort to organize the technological resources of our society for war can be justified, not only by the need of safeguarding our freedom, our form of government and ways of life, but by the determination to weed out those very conditions in society that have made it possible to misuse the boundless potentialities of modern technics for havoc and misery. The very immensity of the destructiveness of modern machine guns, tanks, submarines, and bombers makes it mandatory on civilized man to attack this problem. And the key to the solution is found in cooperation—the inner light of the technological system.

The technological system has contracted the spatial world to a small fraction of what it has been to our forbears through untold generations. It has made

interdependence the basic fact of economic life, an interdependence greatly accentuated and mirrored anew in the unique forms of international cooperation evolved in the war period and symbolized in the concept of "United Nations." The inherent function of such inventions as automobiles and airplanes, the telegraph, telephone, cinema and radio, it has been well said is "to bring men closer to one another." It is the responsibility of the United Nations in the spirit of the Atlantic Charter to achieve this purpose, to rid society of the economic wrongs and political perversions that have spread a pall of misery over our world. Only in case a settlement ensues which recognizes the preponderating facts of modern technology, backed by an enduring organization for the maintenance of world peace and orderly relationships, will future generations condone the staggering sacrifices that this war has entailed.

Needed Changes in the Course in World History

CLARICE J. WEEDEN

Howard High School, West Bridgewater, Massachusetts

The traditional course in world history offered to tenth-grade pupils covers altogether too much ground and includes a vast amount of material of little or no civic value. As indicated in a previous article¹ this author firmly believes that, in order to increase the efficacy of their instruction, teachers must first formulate for themselves a set of precise and clear-cut objectives apposite to the present interests and capacities of their pupils; then undertake a complete overhauling of the content of the course to exclude all useless material and to minimize as much as possible the information of decidedly personal value. The abundance of "deadwood" and personal-culture materials in this course and the lack of exact and immediately meaningful objectives for the subject were demonstrated in the first article. Now the time has come for constructive ideas. Those presented in this article are offered not as infallible formulae, but as suggestions resulting from the author's own experience and experimentation. They are offered in the sincere hope that they will stimulate careful thought by others along the same lines. To improve world history instruction the great need is much serious thinking about the problem by many open and inquiring minds.

First we shall consider the problem of objectives.

World history should fulfill two major objectives: (1) the creation of intelligent, sympathetic and co-operative world citizens; (2) the development of a truer understanding and appreciation of democracy by placing it in its historical perspective. Probably few will quarrel with the contention that the first is a peculiar function of world history, but there may be many objections to the second. Nevertheless, I firmly believe that a knowledge and appreciation of the long struggle by the English to attain our democracy, an understanding of the weaknesses and evils which undermined Athenian democracy and the Roman Republic, and a knowledge of the main principles and practices of the various forms of autocratic government of the past and present can make very cogent contributions to an awareness of the internal dangers to democracy and to a firm determination to preserve the American form of government. One must study more than the history of the United States to come to a full realization of the fact that the price of democracy is eternal vigilance.

The definite aims, which I am offering, were chosen or constructed to meet these two major objectives. A few of these recommendations are repetitions of the more definite aims found in the writings of the authorities.² A few others are my attempts to

¹ "Is World History Being Taught for Civic Purposes?" *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXXIII (May, 1942), 200-205.

² *Ibid.*, p. 201.

make more tangible and exact some of the vaguely expressed opinions of the experts. Three are derived from suggestions made through interviews and questionnaires by classroom teachers of the subject in Massachusetts.

The aims recommended are:

I. *Knowledge, skills and habits*

1. The technique of finding authentic information about historical facts and current world affairs.
2. A vocabulary of significant social, political and economic terms which will directly aid intelligent reading about current world affairs.
3. A knowledge of the basic principles and practices of the leading governments of the world as these affect international relations or throw light upon the strength and weaknesses of our own democratic system.
4. A knowledge of the real causes of war.
5. Ability to recognize propaganda.
6. An acquaintance with efforts to establish international peace and with the reasons for their failure.
7. An understanding of the reasons (economic, social and psychological) for the existence of autocratic governments.
8. An understanding of the price, in human sacrifice, which has been paid for democracy.
9. A knowledge of the fundamental dangers which can undermine democracy from within, as:
 - a. Maldistribution of wealth and opportunity.
 - b. Failure to solve persistent problems of poverty and unemployment.
 - c. Inequality of political and civil rights and privileges among groups within a democratic country.
 - d. Prolonged and expensive wars.
 - e. Lowering of public morality.
 - f. Ignorance and indifference on the part of the majority of citizens and their failure to assume civic responsibilities.
 - g. Deadening of individual initiative.
 - h. Failure of democracies to act quickly in time of emergency.

II. *Attitudes*

1. A real and living interest in learning about current world problems which will continue with the pupil after he leaves school.
2. Love of world peace and an active desire for international cooperation.
3. Tolerance and sympathy for peoples in other lands and for people of other races in our own land.

4. Fairmindedness and willingness to hear and weigh evidence from all sides.
5. An admiration of the work of the "heroes of peace" of all lands and all ages.
6. An appreciation of our rich heritage from other lands and ages.
7. A love of democracy, an appreciation of our personal liberties and a firm determination to keep the United States a democratic nation.
8. An appreciation of the importance and responsibility of each and every individual in building a just and democratic society and in establishing world cooperation.

One of the most valuable services the world history teacher can perform is the creation of a real and continuing interest in world problems and in our country's position in international relations. A great deal of the information we present today will be forgotten or out-of-date tomorrow. If our instruction is to be of lasting value it must equip our pupils with certain basic knowledges and skills (vocabulary, principles of government, etc.), with the ability to find information for themselves in books, magazines and newspapers, and with the faculty to recognize propaganda. Above all else our instruction must stimulate a driving interest in these matters which will compel our pupils to continue their reading and education along these lines after they have gone out from our tutelage. To meet these ends the first six aims under "Knowledge, skill and habits" and the first of the "Attitudes" are especially designed. The remaining objectives in the first group are recommended to aid the pupil to appreciate fully both the true values of, and the real dangers to, our democratic system. The other "Attitudes" should pretty much speak for themselves. If a better and more peaceful world is to be created, these must be the foundation stones in building it.

The experiences and criticisms of other teachers can refine and improve this list. As has been stated before, any truly worthwhile set of objectives must be the outcome of the thought of many serious students of the question. Undoubtedly many readers will feel that this list of aims is too long. It should be remembered, however, that any effort to be exact and specific usually necessitates the use of more words than the expression of vague generalities. And, although the statement of objectives is lengthy, the amount of materials presented to fulfill them should be carefully limited. All is lost if an effort is made to cram too much information into the heads of high school youngsters in a short time. For example, the vocabulary of social, political and economic terms should be short and consist of only the most significant terms as: communism, fascism, dictatorship, imperialism, nationalism, Parliament, subject nation-

ality, autocracy, etc. Probably not more than twenty or twenty-five concepts can be thoroughly assimilated in one year by the average pupil. To have them become a part of his working vocabulary, they must be used over and over again in all their various connotations. Vocabulary lists should differ between communities and depend upon the amount of knowledge the pupils have before starting this course. The study of the leading governments of the world should likewise be strictly confined to the most important countries or types and to the basic principles and practices, consistently avoiding all deadening details and dull technicalities.

A list of precise and meaningful objectives is by no means the complete answer to the problem of making world history a vital course in civic training. A meticulous elimination of non-civic content and a thoughtful selection of materials of maximum civic value must follow the establishment of objectives. In the selection of topics or "areas" of history for the course, it must constantly be remembered that the amount of information and number of topics studied must be rigidly limited to a quantity mentally digestible by adolescents thirteen to sixteen.

The course should be reduced to between seven and ten "areas" of history and these should be organized into units or blocks of work of three to five weeks in length. Some teachers may prefer to organize their units or blocks of work on a vertical scheme (e.g., the story of industry or of agriculture from ancient times to the present).³ Personally I prefer an organization on a roughly chronological basis, for the other scheme is confusing to the pupils who come out with the impression that all governments were developed before man thought of taming the horse, if "Government" is studied before "Systems of Communication." If the blocks of work are developed on a chronological scheme the teacher will have to bridge the gaps resulting from the omission of any period. With thought and some degree of ingenuity the teacher can do this satisfactorily in a short space of class time. I shall suggest the ten "areas" of history study which I believe are most valuable as the foundation for these blocks of work.

In the course of a few years' experimentation the teacher may well have on hand more units or blocks of work than the average pupil could accomplish in the year's time and some plan for progress at individual rates of speed might be worked out, so that the brighter pupils could complete more than the minimum number of units or blocks in the year. Blocks of work of varying degrees of difficulty might also be developed to provide for pupils of different intelligence levels. Some very simple work, emphasizing the narrative and biographical elements in his-

tory can be prepared for the slower pupils. They cannot grasp the involved political, social or economic problems presented the abler pupils.

Whatever scheme of organizing the units or blocks of work the teacher employs or whatever provisions are made to take care of individual differences, the force and point of his teaching will be lost unless adequate time and attention is spent upon the present aspects of the problems. Comparison and contrast of past with present must be done with great thoroughness in order that a clearer understanding of the present may be gained. It cannot be done by any incidental mention in class that "the pyramids were really a work-relief project" or "Mussolini wants to be a second Caesar Augustus." This "doesn't stick," nor does it have any real meaning for the average high school youngster. He must study both the past and present problems thoroughly and be led to make such comparisons and contrasts for himself before they have meaning for him. For some topics half or more of the time should be spent upon such comparison and contrast. Following the list of chosen "areas" of world history will be given two examples to illustrate the type of comparison which I believe is worthwhile. For this work the teacher must constantly be on the alert to gather and use current materials which will make history interesting, vivid and meaningful to the youngsters. Their interest in these materials must be developed so that they will acquire a lifelong habit of reading articles in good newspapers and current periodicals about public affairs.

Around the following topics or "areas" of world history the course should be built. I cannot do more here than suggest these topics with the main points to be stressed in the study of each. These recommendations are given in outline form with the main points to be emphasized in each "area" as sub-topics. After introductory lessons in finding information and using the library the course should begin with an extremely brief summary of ancient Egyptian and Near Eastern civilizations and the weaknesses in their political, social and economic structure. After this survey, which should not consume more than three or four days, the class is ready to dive into the main body of the course following the plan below:

AREAS OF WORLD HISTORY SELECTED FOR CIVIC VALUE

- I. Athenian Democracy
 - A. Significance of Greek city-state and reasons for failure to attain national unity.
 - B. Basic principles and structure of Athenian democracy.
 - C. Effects of Persian Wars upon Athenian government.
 - D. Reasons for the downfall of Athens.

³ See *Across the Ages* by Louise Capen for a good example of this type of organization.

- E. Outstanding Greek leaders.
- F. Greek freedom of thought and the inquiring mind.
- II. Roman Government and Law
 - A. Foundations of the Roman Republic.
 - B. Roman expansion and treatment of conquered peoples.
 - C. Downfall of the Republic and establishment of one-man rule.
 - D. Two hundred years of peace and prosperity under the Empire.
 - E. Internal social, economic and political causes of the fall of the empire.
 - F. The Roman legal mind and codification of laws.
- III. Growth of Nationalism
 - A. Meaning of nationalism
 - B. Beginnings of national states in the Middle Ages.
 - C. Nationalistic struggles of the seventeenth, eighteenth and nineteenth centuries (*as these relate to the present*).
 - D. Relation between autocracy and nationalism.
 - E. Effects of nationalism upon international relations.
 - F. Nationalistic ambitions of countries today.
- IV. Beginnings of English Democracy
 - A. First steps towards democracy and their value to us.
 - B. Renewed struggle for liberties under the Stuarts.
 - C. Our debt to the heroes who fought for democracy.
 - D. Strength of English democracy: slow evolution and gradual preparation of the people for such a form of government.
 - E. Democracy as "a frame of mind" rather than constitutions and laws.
- V. Reform by Revolution
 - A. Causes of the French Revolution.
 - B. The failure of revolution to establish democracy.
 - C. Comparison of French Revolution with more recent revolutions such as the Russian and Spanish as to causes, consequences and failure to achieve democracy quickly.
 - D. Conclusions regarding conditions which breed revolution, methods employed by revolutionists and reasons for their immediate failure.
- VI. Industrial Revolution
 - A. Revolution caused in people's daily life.
 - B. Tremendous social and economic problems resulting from changes in methods of earning a living.
 - C. Effects of industrialization upon governments and international relations.
- VII. Progress toward Reform in the Nineteenth Century
 - A. Political, social and economic reform in the United Kingdom.
 - 1. Undemocratic conditions at the beginning of the century.
 - 2. Forces which brought about the reforms.
 - 3. Relation between these reforms and earlier steps toward democracy.
 - 4. Vitality of English democracy in its capacity for continued growth.
 - B. Establishment of the Third French Republic.
 - 1. Comparison between French and British governments.
 - 2. Contrast between both and the American system.
 - 3. Reasons for the fall of the Third Republic.
 - C. Social and economic reform in the autocracies.
 - 1. Reasons why autocratic governments adopt reforms.
 - 2. Reforms in autocratic countries (especially Germany and Russia).
 - D. Growth of socialism.
- VIII. Background of World War I
 - A. Pre-War attempts at international cooperation.
 - B. Map of Europe on the eve of the war.
 - C. Underlying causes of the war.
 - 1. Comparison of these causes with causes of other wars.
 - 2. Roots of these causes far in the past.
- IX. Failure to Establish a Permanent Peace
 - A. Injustices of the Treaty of Versailles and their relation to the present situation.
 - B. Reasons for the failure of the League of Nations and other post-war attempts to maintain international peace.
 - C. Current international situation.
 - D. Need for "international-mindedness," fair play and toleration.
- X. Post-War Trends in Government and International Relations
 - A. Problems of western democracies in the post-war period.
 - B. Reasons for the failure to establish democracy in the countries of central and eastern Europe.
 - C. The rise of dictatorships.
 - D. Life under a dictatorship.

- E. Extreme nationalism of dictatorships and evils of rampant nationalism.
- F. Experiments in planned (or directed) national economy.
- G. The challenge to democracy.

These topics and subtopics alone will not fulfill the civic objectives set for world history. It must always be remembered that the teacher has constantly to plan for adequate opportunities for careful and thorough comparison between the past and present. Two examples of how this may be done are taken from the first two copies—Athenian Democracy and Roman Government and Law. One of the dangers to our democracy today is the civic irresponsibility of our citizenry.

People do not go to the polls to vote but grumble about the kind of officials who get elected; many of our best citizens refuse to accept public office; and only the unemployed willingly accept jury duty. The story of Athens reveals many pertinent facts regarding the relationship between civic responsiveness and the strength of the government. During the "Golden Age" of Athens the leading statesmen were of high caliber and the citizenry conscientious in the performance of civic duties. A comparison between the great leaders of Athens during this period and the outstanding men in public positions today should demonstrate those qualities of leadership which are essential if democracy is to be kept a going concern. Then revealing contrasts can be drawn between these qualities of true statesmanship and the characteristics of our more notorious politicians.

Likewise one should not neglect a contrast between the willingness of Athenian citizens to fulfill their civic responsibilities in the Age of Pericles and the avoidance of jury duty and negligence about voting and attendance at town meetings of today. Now we are ready for the all-important question: Are we following in the footsteps of the later Athenians who became too lazy or too indifferent to carry out their public duties and so opened the door for ignorant and selfish politicians to gain control of the government? Will our democracy fail for the same reasons as that of ancient Athens? One can easily see how the same questions and ideas can be driven home again in the study of the downfall of the Roman Republic—or to bring the facts much closer to our own time—of the collapse of the Third French Republic.

During the first two hundred years of the Roman Empire, the civilized world enjoyed a period of peace and prosperity never duplicated in history. A thorough study of the conditions—internal and external—which fostered these centuries of peace, followed by a detailed contrast between those conditions and the present chaos can prepare the way for some very thought-provoking questions. If the foundation

study is properly handled, many of these questions should suggest themselves. Are world peace and cooperation impossible unless one power dominates world affairs? Is it impossible to build unity and good-will among sovereign states? Is it even feasible to dream of universal peace today when civilization (so-called) has spread over the whole globe and embraces an area many times that of Imperial Rome? Are the benefits of general peace worth the sacrifice of any of the attributes of national sovereignty and independence? Experienced teachers can add many more valuable questions to this list.

Never must these comparisons and contrasts be hurriedly or lightly undertaken. To derive full value from them, a good share of class and study time must be devoted to them and they must be carried out in all earnestness. If these ten suggested topics or "areas" prove too much material for the course and leave too little time for the development of the present aspects of any problem, it is far better to decrease further the content of the course than to lose these opportunities to increase the pupils' understanding of, and interest in, the present. In order to hold myself closely to this purpose, I find it extremely helpful to draw up a set of specific and detailed objectives for each block of work. These vary slightly from year to year, depending upon the ability of the class and the world situation which it may be well to "capitalize" upon at the time. However, fundamentally these aims remain the same and here are some which have proved particularly useful. Again the first two topics are used for illustration.

Athenian Democracy—Objectives

1. To learn the contributions—spiritual, mental and material—which the Greeks made to civilization and to appreciate our great debt to them.
2. To arouse the pupils to an appreciation of the importance of conscientiously and intelligently fulfilling their civic responsibilities.
3. To understand the qualities of mind and spirit which make true statesmen.
4. To understand the dangers to democracy inherent in war and imperialism.
5. To foster the development of habits of cooperation and leadership through committee work, debates and individual reports.
6. To take initial steps in the development of the realization that, though history may not repeat itself exactly, the human problems of history repeat themselves and we can learn much from the people of the past.

Roman Government and Law—Objectives

1. An appreciation of the values of Roman contributions in law and government.
2. An appreciation of the benefits of universal

peace and free trade and intercourse throughout the civilized world.

3. An understanding of the dangers which undermine republican government from within and the ability to recognize these if existent in our own country. (Dangers: unfair treatment of subject peoples, unjust tax system, continued failure to solve unemployment and relief problems, dying-out of middle class, reduction of free farmers to serfdom, break-down of religion and family life).
4. Recognition of the steps by which one-man rule is established, whether in ancient Rome or in any modern country.
5. Further realization of the importance of each and every citizen's conscientiously fulfilling his civic duties in order to preserve free government.
6. Cooperation and leadership in group activities.

In working out aims for each particular topic, as in drafting aims for the entire course, the two main objectives of world history instruction remain the criteria for acceptance or rejection.

Having considered the question of specific and exact objectives and recommended content of maximum civic worth, a few words about the materials excluded and the reasons for their exclusion are in order. With the exception of a brief survey of Ancient Egypt and the Near East, all prehistory and ancient history is omitted. However interesting this may be to some, it sheds little or no light on current problems, domestic or international. For the majority of pupils it has no value and is, therefore, deadwood. To them practically all materials about the Middle Ages are in the same category, as are most of the details about the Reformation, revolt of the Netherlands, France under the Bourbons, the wars of the French Revolution and Napoleonic Era, Congress of Vienna, French governmental changes, 1815-1875, and the history and politics of the small countries of Europe. It was the consensus of opinion of world history teachers interviewed regarding this matter that these topics either do not possess civic values or do not lend themselves to instruction on the secondary level. Either their civic values are missing or are too remote and indirect, or they are far too complex and detailed to stimulate the adolescent mind. Unless these subjects are reduced to meaningless or misleading generalities, they present such a formidable array of facts, dull and dry to tenth-grade pupils, that the game is lost before it is begun.

Other topics are deleted, not because they are uninteresting or too complicated, but because their worth is primarily in personal culture rather than in the development of civic intelligence and ideals. For this reason we omit Athenian sculpture, architecture, drama, philosophy, etc.; Roman literature and archi-

tecture; Gothic architecture; Renaissance art and literature, explorations and scientific progress; advances in applied science and the fine arts in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. One cannot deny the value of this information in making the pupil's individual life richer and fuller, but to include it in a history course makes the latter too bulky and obscures the civic purposes which are its primary objective. Moreover these materials can undoubtedly be handled better in the art, literature or science courses. Elizabethan literature and the American Revolution are certainly covered elsewhere.

Certain other topics are deleted, not because they lack civic value, but because other materials are judged to possess greater civic worth and there simply is not enough time for all. For example, imperialism in the East, Latin America and the New Orient do not appear as subtopics on the outline. These can be woven into the topics given, if there is sufficient time and the study materials are at hand. It is practically imperative to give some attention to imperialism in the East in an investigation of the causes of World War I. The new Orient, especially Japan, can find a place in the study of post-war trends in government, if time permits. But it is always "if time permits." Too much content, no matter how carefully chosen for civic values, defeats its own purpose.

In this article and its predecessor I have discussed what are, in my opinion, the two chief obstacles to the potency of present world history instruction: lack of specific objectives and the failure to limit and select content of maximum civic worth. By no means are my thoughts the final dictum. Much more work and thought must be expended upon this problem before a completely satisfactory solution is found. The need for the formulation of exact civic aims has been repeatedly stressed. Teachers and textbook writers need the guidance which could be gained from the establishment and wide acceptance of specific and direct civic objectives for world history. To attain validity this establishment of objectives must be done by authoritative and representative groups of social studies instructors. The New England History Teachers' Association did an excellent job in drafting aims and organizing a syllabus for American history and problems of democracy. This association, or a similar one, could do another distinguished service for history teachers by undertaking the same thing for world history. Until this hope becomes a reality, however, the individual teacher must make his own set of objectives, keeping in mind the needs and experience of his pupils and the resources available for study of the subject. If he does not have clearly in mind definite goals for his instruction, the course will become aimless and be a waste of his own and his pupils' time.

Textbooks must be revised to eliminate deadwood and minimize personal-culture content. A textbook which includes fewer "areas" of world history, but describes and explains the "whys" and "wherefores" of these "areas" more fully and interestingly would be pleasing to the teachers of the subject. Generalities and conclusions not clearly arrived at should be avoided, but so also should an accumulation of innumerable facts, names and meaningless phrases. At first this statement seems somewhat paradoxical, but really it is not. What the teachers want is an extensive, stimulating and thorough handling of a few topics rather than brief and general treatment of an extensive number of topics. In their opinion, it is better to know much about a few things than a little about many. It takes time and a broad knowledge to appreciate thoroughly past conditions or problems and their lessons cannot be applied to the present without this appreciation. Textbook content, then, should be re-organized along the same lines suggested for the reorganization of the content of the course: fewer topics included; more space devoted to modern times; mere compilation of facts, names and dates shunned; specificity and clarifying description substituted for vague generalities; strict emphasis on civic content. A wise selection of significant and human material would cause pupils to see the relationship between the changing world of

the past and the changing world of the present and future.

A reduction of the content of world history to the amount suggested by the outline above and such direct comparisons between the past and the present as illustrated will do much to bring the achievement of its civic objectives nearer a reality. These materials were chosen and the comparisons designed with the two primary functions of world history in mind. A consistent effort has been exercised to select only those materials which will foster the creation of intelligent and cooperative world citizenship and the development of a truer understanding of democracy by placing it in its historical perspective. The elimination of deadwood and materials of personal-culture value should make visible the forest instead of the trees. This selection of content must be corrected and amended by the wisdom and experience of a large number of teachers. Greater cooperation among world history teachers would facilitate the development of interesting and meaningful units or blocks of work along the lines suggested in this article. Intelligence, cooperation and idealism can forge from the diverse materials of world history an integrated and purposeful course which will be an invaluable vehicle for the inculcation of worthy ideals of world citizenship and of unswerving loyalty to democracy.

Revised Historical Viewpoints

RALPH B. GUINNESS

Franklin K. Lane High School, Brooklyn, New York

THE COMMUNICATION REVOLUTION¹

One value of historical study is the power to form generalizations which show the continuity of events and give clarity for the understanding of the world in which we live. Thus Blanqui in 1837 recognized and christened the Industrial Revolution. Now Robert G. Albion declares that the revolutionary changes since 1800 in transportation and communication amount to a Communication Revolution distinct from the Industrial Revolution with which these changes have always been accredited.

The changes made by the canal, turnpike, steamboat, railroad, telegraph, telephone, automobile, airplane, radio and others made contributions to social change distinct from those made by factories and machines. They have knitted the world closer together, widened the horizons of every community,

centralized commerce and government, and blitzkrieg warfare. These changes, as is well known, were as revolutionary as those of manufacturing for the movement of men and messages no longer depend on the speed of horse and sailing vessel. Both transport and communication now are global, and the speed of messages, thanks to electricity, is virtually instantaneous.

The Communication Revolution assumed different aspects in different countries. In England the canals, turnpikes and railroads were contributory to industrial development and hence have been considered subordinate. But in the United States new communication and transportation knitted a new country together and pushed the frontier westward irrespective of the growth of cotton mills and iron foundries. So revolutionary was the Communication Revolution that it gave a rebirth, after 1870 or so, to Imperialism which by 1900 had merely established beachheads in

¹ Robert G. Albion, "The Communication Revolution," *American Historical Review*, XXXVII (July, 1932), 718-720.

America, Africa, India and China. The increased tempo and power of the new ways of transport of news and goods made possible the penetration of the interiors of the new continents, while at the same time, by shortening spatial and temporal lines of communication between home and colony, it made for greater efficiency in practice. Imperial potentates also became mere agents at the end of a telegraph wire.

If changes in agriculture with respect to the size and quality of turnips, pigs, sheep and cattle and other changes, such as the inclosures, constitute an Agricultural Revolution then surely changes in the speed of men and messages constitute a Communication Revolution distinct from the Industrial.

HISTORY AND TECHNOLOGY²

One important feature of this article by Professor Carman is its presentation of a revisionist point of view with regard to the Industrial Revolution. The latter had its roots in technological development extending back to the tenth century, if not earlier. Machines did not spring full blown in England until about 1750 to create the Industrial Revolution.

Of the inventions prior to 1500, the clock ranks as our first automatic machine. Next in importance

rank the printing press, the improved manufacture of paper, glass, the mining of coal, the blast furnace and more perfected power devices.

A host of new uses proceeded from the use of glass: the retort, distilling flask, the test-tube, barometer, thermometer, lenses. These all prepared the way for later scientific and industrial techniques and developments.

Water mills were common in England and in continental manufacturing centers by the fourteenth century. They were used to grind grain, pump water, pulp rags for paper, saw wood, operate hammering and cutting machines at ironworks, run hide-beating machines in tanneries, furnish power for spinning silk and fulling cloth, press olives, and turn the grinding machinery of armorers.

Many important mechanical inventions were suggested by Leonardo da Vinci. Among these are the anti-friction roller bearing, the universal joint, rope and belt drives, link chains, bevel and spiral gears, compasses and the continuous motion lathe.

Thus many fundamental technological inventions and discoveries had been made earlier than the eighteenth century on the continent. Copious references are made by Professor Carman in his footnotes as to those who have contributed to this revisionist theory, among them Herbert Heaton and H. L. Beales.

² Harry J. Carman, "History and Technology," *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, XXVI (March, 1935), 152-162.

Beauty in the Community

V. FAURÉ RILLIET

David Starr Jordan Senior High School, Long Beach, California

Defense industries and other war time activities are rapidly absorbing mothers as well as fathers. Not only lack of tires and gasoline but also shortened week-ends are curtailing trips to the mountains and seashore. What will our young people do for week-end and after-school activities? The far thinking teacher will find opportunity at this time for directing the thoughts of his students to the joys of their own community.

"Who walks with beauty has no need of fear." These words by David Morton are pertinent today. Cannot we give something to our students that will help to rest their minds from thoughts of destruction and aggression? Must we not help them to find something that will uplift and inspire with a love for living and giving? True, we are all earnestly striving to teach the great deep values of freedom and the democratic way of life. One of the fine things that this way of life can preserve for us is the opportunity for all of the children of all of the people to share and

enjoy the many beautiful things and experiences present in this land of ours.

The teacher of vision will see that an understanding of the opportunities and problems of his immediate world will lead him into an interest in the larger world which we must all know before we can have that "peace on earth" for which the whole world hungers.

Can we understand our neighbors thousands of miles away if we don't understand and appreciate the man next door? Can we help the man living in South America, China, Africa or any other place to live a good life if we make no effort to enrich our own lives and the lives of those living in our own community?

Good living has a different meaning to each person. But there is one type of experience which can be considered desirable universally. That is experience with beauty. Beauty of line, form, color, texture, beauty of sound (music, wind, waves), beauty of

odor (flowers, perfume, food), beauty of movement (man, plant, animal), beauty of thought or idea. For only as men have had experiences with these things have they become gentle, kindly, tolerant.

We who teach are trying to develop in our students the ability to live a vital, rich life as contributing, cooperative members of society. Experiences with beauty should be an essential part of such education.

Lewis Mumford states clearly the reason for studying our community:

Our educational systems are only beginning to make use of the local community and the region as a locus of exploratory activities; . . . The soil surveys, the historic surveys, etc., on the basis of the immediate local environment, are . . . important instruments of education; . . . When the landscape as a whole comes to mean to the community and the individual citizen what the single garden does to the individual lover of flowers, the regional survey will not merely be a mode of assimilating scientific knowledge; it will be a dynamic preparation for further activity. . . we will create a whole generation that will look upon every aspect of the region, the community, and their personal lives as subject to the same processes; exploration, scientific observation, imaginative reconstruction and finally, transformation by art, by technical improvement and personal discipline.¹

The following program dealing with a community study was worked out with students and faculty members in a senior high school. The object of the program is to provide each child purposeful experiences with the natural and man-made beauty in his own surroundings. For only through such knowledge can he develop an active desire and ability to appreciate and care for such beauty, to do away with ugliness and to create new beauty through the efforts of himself and others. Through such a study of his home and community it will become a more orderly, pleasant and stimulating place in which to live, and he will become a better citizen for having lived in such an environment.

The following are questions which the teacher should discuss with students as a preliminary to making a survey of the aesthetic resources of the community. Whether the material would be handled exactly as stated or in a more simple way would be determined by the age-group making the study.

As in studying anything we should first consider, "Why such a study?"

- I. What are the values of studying the beauty in my community?
 - A. To the individual
 - B. To the community

Students and teacher having found that there are good reasons for such a study it would be well to pause and determine what facts about our community might effect the quality, quantity, and form of the beauty inherent and man-produced in our city.

- II. What are the factors influencing the arts and natural beauty which I can enjoy in my community?

- A. Geographic factors of my community as they control needs, materials and forms of beauty.

1. Climate
2. Topography
3. Geology
4. Location

- B. Social factors as they determine the needs and desires of the people of my community.

1. Family life
2. Races
3. Religions and philosophies

- C. Economic factors as they expand or limit opportunities for experience with beauty in my community.

1. Occupations of the people
2. Financial status of the people

- D. Political factors and how they recognize, encourage and provide for the development of natural beauty and art.

- E. Historical background of my community as it enriches and influences art form.

Now that we understand something about our community's physical, social, economic, political and historical background we can start our visits to community organizations and institutions which can help us discover the aesthetic advantages around us.

- III. Where can I find what my community has to offer in the arts and in the form of natural beauty?

- A. From individuals

- B. From educational organizations

1. Public and private schools—day and evening

2. Universities and colleges

3. International institutes

4. Settlement programs

- C. Chamber of Commerce

- D. Clubs

1. Federated Women's Clubs

2. Art Clubs

3. Music Clubs

4. Junior League

- E. City, state and federal government offices

- F. Business houses—department stores

¹ Lewis Mumford, *The Culture of Cities*, pp. 383-386.

- G. Factories
- H. Recreation centers
- I. Libraries and museums
- J. Theatres and movies
- K. The press (papers, magazines)

The people we have contacted have given us helpful guidance. We are now ready to explore our home town. The class could be divided into small exploring parties to locate things of interest and inspiration. These trips could be taken during school, after school or on Saturdays and Sundays. Parents would probably be eager to assist in such excursions.

IV. The beauty I find in my community through exploration.

- A. What kinds of art and natural beauty are there in my community?
- B. How did each develop in my community?
 - 1. Was it always here?
 - 2. Did someone introduce it because he felt it would enrich the community?
 - 3. Has it been a good addition to the life of my community?
- C. How many activities are presented during the year? e.g. number of concerts, number of art exhibits, flower shows, plays, dance recitals, book reviews, garden tours, etc.
- D. What specific individual experiences with the arts are available in the community? e.g. playing in an orchestra, dancing, acting in plays, designing and making gardens, etc.
- E. How are these activities administered and maintained?

We have found our community rich in advantages for the seeker of beauty. We wonder whether our citizens use these advantages and whether they are easily available to all. Sponsors of entertainments

would be glad to furnish helpful information on this subject.

- V. Do all of the people in my community enjoy some of the experiences with beauty that are available to them?
 - A. How many people participate in each activity?
 - 1. Participants
 - 2. Spectators
 - B. Where do participants and spectators live? North, south, east, west or central part of town.
 - C. How can one get to such activities? Cost?
 - D. What does it cost to participate in such activities?
 - E. What does it cost to be a spectator at such activities?

Since we have gathered much information we can now consider how we as individuals can improve and foster the development of all kinds of beauty in our own home town.

- VI. What experiences with beauty do I feel should be added to the life of my community? Why?
- VII. How could I help to increase interest in the natural beauty and arts of my community and active participation in producing and caring for them?

A pupil who has made such a study will have a living picture of his own environment. From this picture he can choose his forms of inspiration, recreation and enlightenment. If he finds his town sadly lacking, his very interest in and discussion of the problem may open the eyes of the "powers that be" and lead them to rectify the situation. Every city, town and village should provide opportunities for rich experiences with beauty, for one who has "walked with beauty" has an inner defense to carry him through these times of fear and heartache.

Geographic Games and Tests

W. O. BLANCHARD

University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois

Past numbers of THE SOCIAL STUDIES have contained series of geographic games and tests planned for courses in geography, history and the social studies in general. The series will be continued throughout the school year.

The difficulty of the games may be increased by

omitting the answers found at the bottom of some of them, by putting a time limit on the completion of them, or by assigning them simply for study. There will be about 100 games in the entire series so that there is provided a wide range from which selection to fit particular needs may be made.

G 51. NORTH AMERICA—YES OR NO?

Some of these statements about North America are correct, others are incorrect. Change a word or two in those that are wrong so they will be right.

1. For Alaska the fisheries have a value greater than all of the products from the land.
2. The chief natural handicap of Canada is cold; of Mexico, drought.
3. The New York State Barge Canal is much used for the iron ore shipments from the Lake Superior District.
4. Montreal is nearer to England than is New York, but the former is icebound several months of the year.
5. Chicle for binder twine and sisal for chewing gum are obtained from Mexico.
6. The most important crop of Canada is wheat; of Mexico, corn; of the U.S., corn.
7. The St. Lawrence River is used by ships the year round.
8. The Columbia is a great salmon stream; Chesapeake Bay is noted for oysters; the Grand Banks are famous for cod; and the Pribilof Islands, for fur seals.
9. The Prairie Provinces of Canada are one of the world's famous spring wheat regions.
10. North America ranks first among the continents in coal reserves.
11. Most of Canada's population is near the U.S. border; that of Mexico is far from her U.S. border.
12. The principal gateway for Canadian foreign trade is the Great Lakes-St. Lawrence Valley.
13. The chief power production in Canada is from coal; in the U.S., from oil; and in Mexico, from oil.
14. The population of Central America is located mainly upon the plateaus.
15. The Laurentian Shield is one of Canada's most important agricultural regions.
16. The most important traffic through the Panama Canal is that between the eastern and western coasts of the U.S.
17. Of the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of North America, the former is much more ice free than is the latter.
18. Canada is about the same size as the United States including Alaska.
19. The Pacific coast of Canada and Alaska is much indented but has few important harbors.
20. Navigation on Hudson Bay is handicapped by ice much of the year.

G 52. WHYS IN ASIA

Why

1. In India does the English or American railway traveler carry his own bedding?
2. Do Chinese subsist largely on a vegetable diet?
3. Do the bean and pea play a large part in the diet of Chinese?
4. Do many Chinese "pad" their clothes rather than heat their houses in winter?
5. Is fish an important food in Japan but not in India?
6. Do so many people in the Far East live in boats on the water?
7. Are dung cakes commonly used for fuel by natives in India?
8. Is southwestern Asia the land of Oriental rugs?
9. Are there so few cattle or horses in central and south China?
10. Has silk been the great "money crop" of Japan and south China?
11. Are the better houses in India built with high ceilings, many large windows, spacious verandas, and plain walls?
12. Are the ricksha, wheelbarrow and bamboo shoulder-support for carrying loads so much used in the Middle and Far East?
13. Is the elephant well adapted to teak-logging in Siam and tiger-hunting in Bengal?
14. Is the common river and canal craft in China a junk rather than a steamer?
15. Does bamboo figure so largely in buildings; rice straw, in shoes and floor-coverings; and cotton, for everyday clothes in China?
16. Is rice the breadstuff in central and south China; millet and wheat, in the north?
17. Are many dishes in tropical Asia so highly spiced?
18. Are dairy products so little used in India, south China and Japan?
19. Is the Indian woman sometimes called a "traveling savings bank?"
20. Does the son of an Indian usually follow his father's trade?

Federal Publications for American History Courses

HAROLD JOSEPH HIGHLAND
Riverside Civic Council, New York City

The teacher of American history, whether he is teaching the American Indian, the Constitutional Convention, the annexation of Texas, the Price Control Act, or any other phase of American history or life may call upon the federal government for classroom aids. The various departments, bureaus and offices of the government are constantly publishing documents and surveys which the ingenious teacher may obtain and use in his classroom.

All federal government publications may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., but the teacher may obtain many of these publications free of charge by writing directly to the agencies concerned. For example, the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the Department of Labor will supply, free of charge, certain of its publications for classroom use, while Congressmen will gladly help a teacher obtain any Senate or House Committee report which will aid in presenting and illustrating a subject or unit.

Federal documents are quite valuable for many reasons. First, they enable the student to have before him source and research material which he otherwise would often find difficult to obtain. Second, these documents, which may often be secured free of charge or for a small sum, help to stimulate class discussion and individual and group projects. Third, they also help the students to gain an over-all prospectus of the workings of a democratic government, and in particular, the ways in which the democratic nation helps to keep its citizens informed.

Today, there is much emphasis upon unit planning and also upon the problems-approach. Many teachers are no longer satisfied to adopt a single textbook for classroom use, while others find themselves in school systems which cannot afford to buy many reference or source books for the school or classroom library. To these teachers, federal publications are a great aid, for they constitute source and reference works.

CONGRESSIONAL PUBLICATIONS

One of the sources of federal publications useful in the civics and American history classes is the Congress of the United States. By writing to his Congressman, the teacher may often secure valuable publications for his classroom library. For example, the teacher may secure any of the following free of charge for classroom use:

- (1) *Constitution, Jefferson's Manual and the Rules of the House of Representatives*, 75th Cong., 3d Sess., House Document 700.
- (2) *The House Committee Hearings on The Purchase and Charter of Foreign Owned Vessels*, 77th Cong., 1st Sess., Committee of Merchant Marine and Fisheries of the House.
- (3) *The Senate Committee Hearings on The Purchase and Charter of Foreign Merchant Vessels for National Defense*, 77th Cong., 1st Sess., Committee on Commerce of the Senate.
- (4) *The Monroe Doctrine and the Habana Convention of the American Republics*, 1940, 76th Cong., 3d Sess., Senate Document 303.
- (5) *Politics of Our Military National Defense: A History of Forces Within the United States which Shaped our Military National Defense Policies, 1783 to 1940*, 76th Cong., 3d Sess., Senate Document 274.

These are but a few of the many documents which any Congressman will be glad to send to teachers for use in the classroom.

PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO INDUSTRY AND AGRICULTURE

Besides the Congress of the United States there are many Departments which publish materials useful for the classroom. The Department of Agriculture, for example, offers teachers, especially in rural areas, materials for teaching the problems of the farmers and their relationship to those of the city people. The various *Yearbooks: Soils and Men* (1938), *Food and Life* (1939), *Farmers in a Changing World* (1940), and *Climate and Man* (the current *Yearbook*) offer the history teacher, not only of rural areas but also in towns and cities, the opportunity to teach for the understanding of rural-town problems and rural-town interdependence. In addition, the Department of Agriculture publishes a series of documents on consumer purchasing. This series, known as the *Consumer Purchase Study: Urban, Village and Farm Series*, can serve as source material for class use and

it will enable the students to compare the many phases of rural and town life of the United States.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics of the Department of Labor will also cooperate with teachers. For example, this Bureau has published many volumes on family income and expenditure. *The Study of Consumer Purchases: Urban Technical Series* affords to both the rural and town students a chance to study town life more objectively. Volume VIII of this series compares Expenditures for Recreation, Reading, Formal Education, Tobacco, Contributory and Personal Taxes in the different sections of the nation and for the different income groups. This study, combined with that issued by the Department of Agriculture, would help the teacher in the presentation of American economic life of today.

The Department of Commerce can also help the American history teacher. While the two surveys described are primarily interested in the United States of today, the Commerce Department has a two-volume series entitled, *Stories of American Industry*, which presents a historical account of the various industries of the nation. Then too, the seven volume analysis of the *St. Lawrence Survey* will enable students to study the development of commerce along the Great Lakes region and the possibilities of the growth of this waterway.

OFFICE AND BUREAU PUBLICATIONS

In addition to the Congress of the United States and the various government departments, the publications of many of the offices and bureaus of the federal government should be useful to the progressive teacher. In a study of the New Deal many students are bewildered by the many alphabet combinations that confront them. The Office of Government Reports of the Executive Office of the President has published a booklet, *A Digest of the Purposes of Federal Agencies*, which any American history teacher will find extremely useful. With this fifty-page booklet is an organization chart of the federal government and its various agencies.

GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS AS MOTIVATING DEVICES

Many teachers have deviated from the chronological approach in teaching the history of America, and some have attempted to present their courses along the lines of pupil interest. If, for example, the teacher finds some students in the class interested in stamp collecting and in stamp history, a document published by the Post Office Department, *A Description of United State Postage Stamps, 1847 to 1931*, will serve as an invaluable aid for these students. Any teacher can realize the incentive offered to students who could combine their hobby with their study of history.

THE PLACE OF GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS IN THE SCHOOL

Government publications can play an important part in teaching, and it is the duty of the individual teacher to decide what role they should play. A teacher using the problems-approach method will find the government publications extremely useful for the class library and for source and study materials. The teacher, following the unit plan of teaching, will find these documents valuable as additional source materials which his students could read. The teacher, who is trying to motivate his class while teaching history chronologically, also can find these documents helpful, for they are an added incentive to the students and they provide them with the facts. Any teacher may take advantage of the opportunity given to him by the federal government to obtain publications for his classroom. By writing to the Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., and receiving a copy of the various price lists, and by having a member of the department receive a weekly copy of *A Weekly List of Selected United States Government Publications for Sale by the Superintendent of Documents*, which is sent free of charge upon request, to check upon the current publications, teachers will discover that within a short time and for very little money, they can build an excellent reference, source, and study library for their students.

Do College Students Know the Periodical Field?

REGINALD STEVENS KIMBALL
New York University, New York City

In taking over a group engaged in studying "The Contemporary Social World" last fall, I decided to find out just how *contemporary* in viewpoint the

group might be. Accordingly, at my second meeting with the class, I asked each member to give me a list of the magazines for which he or some member

of his household subscribed or which he made it a practice to read fairly regularly. The list of magazines reported, with frequency of mention follows:

TABLE I
MAGAZINES REPORTED AS READ REGULARLY

TITLE	No. TIMES	TITLE	No. TIMES
Aero Digest	1	Life	11
American	1	Look	2
Asia	2	McCall's	1
Atlantic	2	Motor	1
Auto Digest	1	Nation	3
Collier's	5	New Republic	3
Coronet	2	Newsweek	11
Current History	3	Nurses Journal	1
Esquire	1	Popular Photography ..	1
Grade Teacher	1	Popular Science	1
Good Housekeeping ..	3	Readers' Digest	20
Harper's	4	Saturday Evening Post ..	14
Industrial Voca. Educ. .	1	Scientific American ..	1
Instructor	1	This Week	2
Journal of Health, Phys.	1	Time	11
Ed.	1	Woman's Home Com-	
Ladies' Home Journal .	4	panion	2
Liberty	1		

Inasmuch as most of these students were "social studies majors," with definite interest in teaching in the field, this list seemed a sadly impoverished one. About one-half of the members of the group indicated that they were already engaged in teaching.

Each member of the class was supplied with a list of "Periodicals Helpful in the Study of the Current of Events," twenty-five titles appearing in a column headed "Entire Contents" and twenty under the heading, "Certain Articles." The use of the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* and similar indices was explained.

Stressing the need for reading in the current field as a means of supplementing the textbook and keeping it up-to-date, I urged that each student make it a point to get acquainted with at least ten of the magazines on the recommended list, choosing five from each column in order to get a better-rounded reading background. In each magazine, the student was to read one article which had a bearing on his research topic; in addition, he was to familiarize himself with the magazine, noting the auspices under which it was published, frequency of publication, cost, characteristic appearance, and—above all—indicating his reaction to it. Reports were to be submitted at the rate of one a week during the remainder of the term and a check-sheet, which provided a summary of the findings for the entire list of ten, was to be handed in at the final session of the class.

As was to be expected, not all of the magazines met with equal favor at the hands of all members of the class. Very frequently, the student's comment was to the effect that a particular magazine had little

appeal for him. On the other hand, at some time during the term, every member of the class mentioned two or three magazines which he was delighted to know and for which he intended to subscribe. Perhaps because of non-availability in the local libraries patronized by the students, several of the magazines recommended were not listed in any of the reports. A few were listed only once or twice, possibly for the same reason. The full report follows:

TABLE II
MAGAZINES CHOSEN FOR REPORT

TITLE	No. TIMES	TITLE	No. TIMES
Amerasia	2	United States News ...	23
American Observer	3	America	4
Asia	15	American Mercury	9
Bulletin, Pan American		American Scholar	1
Union	1	Atlantic	11
Current Biography	1	Christian Century	3
Current History	22	Common Sense	2
Far Eastern Quarterly..	1	Commonweal	10
Foreign Affairs	2	Decision	1
Foreign Policy Bulletin	6	Fortune	6
Foreign Policy Reports..	9	Harper's	10
Free World	8	Living Age	1
Geographic News Bulletin		Nation	14
tin	1	New Masses	5
International Concilia-		New Republic	16
tion	1	Saturday Review of Lit-	
National Geographic ..	5	erature	5
Newsweek	12	Survey Graphic and Mid-	
Time	20	monthly	17
Our Times	4	Tomorrow	18
Political Science Quar-		Vital Speeches	4
terly	1	Yale Review	4

As a question on the final examination, the following paragraph appeared: "Of the magazines which you have reviewed in this course, which most appeals to you from the standpoint of readability, general coverage of current affairs, reliability, and non-partisanship? Give your reasons in the form of a letter urging a friend to become acquainted with the magazine." Twelve of the forty-five on the original list received mention, only two getting more than three votes, however. The statements concerning the magazines, coupled with the students' comments that this was the most valuable feature of the course, seem adequately borne out by a comparison of the final list with that secured at the beginning of the term:

TABLE III
FAVORITE MAGAZINE REPORTED

TITLE	No. TIMES	TITLE	No. TIMES
Current History	6	United States News ...	3
Foreign Affairs	1	American Mercury	1
Free World	2	Fortune	1
National Geographic ..	1	Nation	1
Newsweek	1	New Republic	1
Time	7	Tomorrow	3

Influence of the Huguenot Refugees on English Manufactures

JOANNE PATSY GUITTEAU

Miami University, Oxford, Ohio

During the eighteenth century, England wrested from France not only her vast colonial empire, but also her preeminence as the leading industrial nation of Europe. England's great advance in the industrial field was largely owing to her policy of toleration toward Protestant refugees who sought asylum from religious persecution in their native land. This policy was inaugurated by Queen Elizabeth who encouraged the immigration of French Huguenots and permitted them freedom of worship in their own churches.

The same tolerant policy was continued by Elizabeth's successors. "I will protect you," James I assured the French refugees, "as it is the duty of every good prince to defend those who have abandoned their country for their religion's sake. It is my desire to defend you, as the Queen, my sister, renowned the wide world over, has done before me. Wherefore, if any one shall dare to molest you, I will so punish him that he shall have no desire to return to his offence."¹

Charles I on his accession guaranteed to the members of the French churches in London all the immunities which they had enjoyed under his predecessors. Charles II continued the protection of the heretical subjects of Louis XIV notwithstanding he was in regular receipt of a pension from the French king. And James II, in spite of his aversion to their religion, authorized the collection of funds to aid the Huguenot refugees. Whatever the motives of the English rulers, the sequel proved that the policy of free asylum and religious toleration was one of true political statesmanship.

A considerable number of Huguenots who escaped from the massacre of Saint Bartholomew in 1572 found refuge in England during that same year. A far larger migration came about a century later, following the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. This famous edict, signed by King Henry IV in the year 1598, allowed the Huguenots free exercise of their religion, gave them definite rights of public worship, and threw open to them all the offices of state. The edict did much to end the religious dissensions which had torn France for thirty years. King Henry of Navarre had himself been the acknowledged leader of the Huguenots, but he renounced his religion

when he became king of France. The great majority of his new subjects were of the Catholic faith, and Henry found it necessary to choose between his religion and his crown. "Paris," he said, "was worth a mass."

The Edict of Nantes continued in force for nearly ninety years when it was suddenly revoked by King Louis XIV on October 15, 1685. The preamble of the Revocation recited that it was issued "for the purpose of effacing entirely the memory of the evils which this false religion has caused in our kingdom." Continuing, it ordered the destruction of all chapels, and forbade any assembly or worship on the part of the dissenters. Their ministers were to leave the kingdom within fifteen days; all new-born babies must be baptized by the parish priests; and all Huguenots were forbidden to leave France on pain of the galleys for the men, and confiscation of person and property for the women. All ports were closed, all frontiers guarded. Nevertheless, there was fleeing in all directions. The Huguenots went abroad braving all dangers, even that of the galleys. Many were captured and the men actually sent to the galleys; but it is estimated that not less than 400,000 Huguenots made their escape to nearby Protestant countries, chiefly England, Holland, and Brandenburg (now Prussia).

At the time of the Revocation the Huguenots numbered less than one tenth of the entire population of France, but their weight in the industrial life of the nation was in a very different proportion. It has been estimated that at least one half of all French manufacturing was in the hands of the dissenters, or the "Reformed," as they called themselves.² In their ranks were thousands of the best artisans and the most skilled mechanics, as well as many of the leading merchants and manufacturers. This was due to the fact that trade and manufacturing centered in the towns and cities, and the towns of France were the strongholds of Calvinism, just as in England the towns were the strongholds of Puritanism. The English historian, Lecky, explains this situation by pointing out that: "New ideas appear most quickly and circulate most easily in the crowded centers of population." Continuing, he quotes with approval the dic-

¹ The original document, written in French, is in the Register of the Acts of the French Church of London, deposited with the Registrar-General, Somerset House, London.

² Henry M. Baird, *The Huguenots and the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes*, I (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1895), 369-371.

tum of Sir William Petty: "Trade is most vigorously carried on in every state and government by the most heterodox part of the same, and by such as profess opinions different from what are publicly established."

So it came about that in attempting to extinguish heresy in France, King Louis XIV struck a severe blow at French industry. When the Huguenot employers fled, their men usually followed them, often taking their tools with them. Shortly after the Revocation, of 40,000 workmen formerly employed in Tours only 4,000 remained, and its 8,000 looms for the manufacture of silk were reduced to 1,200. The silk industry of Lyons suffered a like fate. The population of this city was reduced from 90,000 in prosperous times to about 20,000 in 1698, and of its 18,000 looms only about 4,000 remained.³ The same dispersal of industry occurred in other French towns and cities. The makers of white linen cloth left Nantes, Rennes, and Morlaix in Brittany; the makers of fine beaver hats fled from Caudebec and Havre; the lace-makers departed from Lille and Valenciennes, and the cloth-makers from Amies, Abbeville, and Doullens.

Many of the Huguenot refugees took refuge in Holland where they formed large colonies in the cities of Amsterdam and Rotterdam. About 20,000 found asylum in Brandenburg and laid the foundation of Prussian manufactures. To England came another host of refugees, the number of whom is variously estimated at from 70,000 to 100,000. In England as in Holland and Germany, they received a warm welcome and substantial aid from the authorities. Sometimes there was jealousy on the part of the English workers, but for the most part the refugees were well received.

The mercantile theory of the day favored the encouragement of new trades, and help bestowed on the refugees was regarded as a wise investment. A tract of the time printed in London reflects this favorable attitude toward the immigrants, expressed in the form of a dialogue between *Content* and *Complaint*. "At this rate," says *Complaint*, "all the world would be invited hither"; and *Content* replies, "Amen, say I."⁴ The English economists could soon point with pride to their newly-established silk industry. Before the Revocation, England imported £200,000 worth of lustrings from France each year, but by the year 1698 the English silk industry was so firmly established that all importation of foreign lustrings was prohibited.

England granted liberty of conscience and freedom of worship to the refugees. Between the years

1688 and 1716, no fewer than twenty-six French churches and chapels were established in London, besides eleven others in the provinces. By an Act of Parliament passed in 1709, naturalization was granted to the refugees, only the oath of allegiance and the taking of the Sacrament being required. For the relief of the indigent refugees, collections were taken in the churches, and Parliament added considerable sums from the public purse. This fund, known as the "Royal Bounty," amounted to nearly £200,000. It was deposited in the London Exchequer, and yielded an annual interest of about £15,000. Distribution of the proceeds was entrusted to a committee composed of the leaders of the Huguenots in London. The first report of this relief committee, made in December, 1687, showed that 15,500 refugees had been aided in that year. Of this number, 13,000 were living in London and 2,500 in seaport towns where they had landed. The report lists among those aided: 140 persons of quality; 143 ministers; and 144 lawyers, physicians, burghers, and merchants. The remainder are designated as "artisans and mechanics" who were supplied with the tools and implements of their trade in addition to small money grants for their immediate needs.⁵ The financial help given to the refugees decreased steadily as they became established in industry. The report of the relief committee made in 1718 shows that in that year only 5,194 refugees were in need of relief.

The influence of Huguenot refugees on English manufactures can be realized fully only by comparing the statistics of international trade before and after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. Prior to the Revocation, the chief articles imported into England from France were velvets and satins from Lyons; silks and taffetas from Tours; beaver and felt hats from Caudebec, Paris, and Rouen; paper of all sorts from Auvergne and Champagne; and linen cloth from Brittany and Normandy. As Samuel Fortrey regretfully points out, the total of these and other importations from France amounted in the year 1663 to the immense sum of £2,540,000; whereas, the value of all English goods exported to France in that same year did not amount to one million pounds. "The chief manufactures among us at this day," says Fortrey, "are only woolen clothes, woolen stuffs of all sorts, stockings, ribbandings, and perhaps some few silk stuffs, and some other small things scarce worth the naming."⁶

The following are the importations of French goods into England in the year 1663 as given by Fortrey:

³ M. Charles Weiss, *History of the French Protestant Refugees*, I (New York: Stringer and Townsend, 1854), 116-117.

⁴ H. D. Traill (Ed.), *Social England: A Record of the Progress of the People*, IV (London: Cassell and Company, 1905), 450.

⁵ Samuel Smiles, *The Huguenots: Their Settlements, Churches, and Industries in England and Ireland* (New York: Stringer and Townsend, 1854), p. 252.

⁶ Samuel Fortrey, *England's Interest and Improvement* (Cambridge: Printed by John Field for the University, 1663), pp. 24-26.

Influence of the Huguenot Refugees on English Manufactures

JOANNE PATSY GUITTEAU

Miami University, Oxford, Ohio

During the eighteenth century, England wrested from France not only her vast colonial empire, but also her preeminence as the leading industrial nation of Europe. England's great advance in the industrial field was largely owing to her policy of toleration toward Protestant refugees who sought asylum from religious persecution in their native land. This policy was inaugurated by Queen Elizabeth who encouraged the immigration of French Huguenots and permitted them freedom of worship in their own churches.

The same tolerant policy was continued by Elizabeth's successors. "I will protect you," James I assured the French refugees, "as it is the duty of every good prince to defend those who have abandoned their country for their religion's sake. It is my desire to defend you, as the Queen, my sister, renowned the wide world over, has done before me. Wherefore, if any one shall dare to molest you, I will so punish him that he shall have no desire to return to his offence."¹

Charles I on his accession guaranteed to the members of the French churches in London all the immunities which they had enjoyed under his predecessors. Charles II continued the protection of the heretical subjects of Louis XIV notwithstanding he was in regular receipt of a pension from the French king. And James II, in spite of his aversion to their religion, authorized the collection of funds to aid the Huguenot refugees. Whatever the motives of the English rulers, the sequel proved that the policy of free asylum and religious toleration was one of true political statesmanship.

A considerable number of Huguenots who escaped from the massacre of Saint Bartholomew in 1572 found refuge in England during that same year. A far larger migration came about a century later, following the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. This famous edict, signed by King Henry IV in the year 1598, allowed the Huguenots free exercise of their religion, gave them definite rights of public worship, and threw open to them all the offices of state. The edict did much to end the religious dissensions which had torn France for thirty years. King Henry of Navarre had himself been the acknowledged leader of the Huguenots, but he renounced his religion

when he became king of France. The great majority of his new subjects were of the Catholic faith, and Henry found it necessary to choose between his religion and his crown. "Paris," he said, "was worth a mass."

The Edict of Nantes continued in force for nearly ninety years when it was suddenly revoked by King Louis XIV on October 15, 1685. The preamble of the Revocation recited that it was issued "for the purpose of effacing entirely the memory of the evils which this false religion has caused in our kingdom." Continuing, it ordered the destruction of all chapels, and forbade any assembly or worship on the part of the dissenters. Their ministers were to leave the kingdom within fifteen days; all new-born babies must be baptized by the parish priests; and all Huguenots were forbidden to leave France on pain of the galleys for the men, and confiscation of person and property for the women. All ports were closed, all frontiers guarded. Nevertheless, there was fleeing in all directions. The Huguenots went abroad braving all dangers, even that of the galleys. Many were captured and the men actually sent to the galleys; but it is estimated that not less than 400,000 Huguenots made their escape to nearby Protestant countries, chiefly England, Holland, and Brandenburg (now Prussia).

At the time of the Revocation the Huguenots numbered less than one tenth of the entire population of France, but their weight in the industrial life of the nation was in a very different proportion. It has been estimated that at least one half of all French manufacturing was in the hands of the dissenters, or the "Reformed," as they called themselves.² In their ranks were thousands of the best artisans and the most skilled mechanics, as well as many of the leading merchants and manufacturers. This was due to the fact that trade and manufacturing centered in the towns and cities, and the towns of France were the strongholds of Calvinism, just as in England the towns were the strongholds of Puritanism. The English historian, Lecky, explains this situation by pointing out that: "New ideas appear most quickly and circulate most easily in the crowded centers of population." Continuing, he quotes with approval the dic-

¹ The original document, written in French, is in the Register of the Acts of the French Church of London, deposited with the Registrar-General, Somerset House, London.

² Henry M. Baird, *The Huguenots and the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes*, I (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1895), 369-371.

tum of Sir William Petty: "Trade is most vigorously carried on in every state and government by the most heterodox part of the same, and by such as profess opinions different from what are publicly established."

So it came about that in attempting to extinguish heresy in France, King Louis XIV struck a severe blow at French industry. When the Huguenot employers fled, their men usually followed them, often taking their tools with them. Shortly after the Revocation, of 40,000 workmen formerly employed in Tours only 4,000 remained, and its 8,000 looms for the manufacture of silk were reduced to 1,200. The silk industry of Lyons suffered a like fate. The population of this city was reduced from 90,000 in prosperous times to about 20,000 in 1698, and of its 18,000 looms only about 4,000 remained.³ The same dispersal of industry occurred in other French towns and cities. The makers of white linen cloth left Nantes, Rennes, and Morlaix in Brittany; the makers of fine beaver hats fled from Caudebec and Havre; the lace-makers departed from Lille and Valenciennes, and the cloth-makers from Amies, Abbeville, and Doullens.

Many of the Huguenot refugees took refuge in Holland where they formed large colonies in the cities of Amsterdam and Rotterdam. About 20,000 found asylum in Brandenburg and laid the foundation of Prussian manufactures. To England came another host of refugees, the number of whom is variously estimated at from 70,000 to 100,000. In England as in Holland and Germany, they received a warm welcome and substantial aid from the authorities. Sometimes there was jealousy on the part of the English workers, but for the most part the refugees were well received.

The mercantile theory of the day favored the encouragement of new trades, and help bestowed on the refugees was regarded as a wise investment. A tract of the time printed in London reflects this favorable attitude toward the immigrants, expressed in the form of a dialogue between *Content* and *Complaint*. "At this rate," says *Complaint*, "all the world would be invited hither"; and *Content* replies, "Amen, say I."⁴ The English economists could soon point with pride to their newly-established silk industry. Before the Revocation, England imported £200,000 worth of lustrings from France each year, but by the year 1698 the English silk industry was so firmly established that all importation of foreign lustrings was prohibited.

England granted liberty of conscience and freedom of worship to the refugees. Between the years

1688 and 1716, no fewer than twenty-six French churches and chapels were established in London, besides eleven others in the provinces. By an Act of Parliament passed in 1709, naturalization was granted to the refugees, only the oath of allegiance and the taking of the Sacrament being required. For the relief of the indigent refugees, collections were taken in the churches, and Parliament added considerable sums from the public purse. This fund, known as the "Royal Bounty," amounted to nearly £200,000. It was deposited in the London Exchequer, and yielded an annual interest of about £15,000. Distribution of the proceeds was entrusted to a committee composed of the leaders of the Huguenots in London. The first report of this relief committee, made in December, 1687, showed that 15,500 refugees had been aided in that year. Of this number, 13,000 were living in London and 2,500 in seaport towns where they had landed. The report lists among those aided: 140 persons of quality; 143 ministers; and 144 lawyers, physicians, burghers, and merchants. The remainder are designated as "artisans and mechanics" who were supplied with the tools and implements of their trade in addition to small money grants for their immediate needs.⁵ The financial help given to the refugees decreased steadily as they became established in industry. The report of the relief committee made in 1718 shows that in that year only 5,194 refugees were in need of relief.

The influence of Huguenot refugees on English manufactures can be realized fully only by comparing the statistics of international trade before and after the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. Prior to the Revocation, the chief articles imported into England from France were velvets and satins from Lyons; silks and taffetas from Tours; beaver and felt hats from Caudebec, Paris, and Rouen; paper of all sorts from Auvergne and Champagne; and linen cloth from Brittany and Normandy. As Samuel Fortrey regretfully points out, the total of these and other importations from France amounted in the year 1663 to the immense sum of £2,540,000; whereas, the value of all English goods exported to France in that same year did not amount to one million pounds. "The chief manufactures among us at this day," says Fortrey, "are only woollen clothes, woollen stuffs of all sorts, stockings, ribbandings, and perhaps some few silk stuffs, and some other small things scarce worth the naming."⁶

The following are the importations of French goods into England in the year 1663 as given by Fortrey:

³ Samuel Smiles, *The Huguenots: Their Settlements, Churches, and Industries in England and Ireland* (New York: Stringer and Townsend, 1854), p. 252.

⁴ H. D. Traill (Ed.), *Social England: A Record of the Progress of the People*, IV (London: Cassell and Company, 1905), 450.

⁵ Ibid.

⁶ Ibid.

³ M. Charles Weiss, *History of the French Protestant Refugees*, I (New York: Stringer and Townsend, 1854), 116-117.

⁴ H. D. Traill (Ed.), *Social England: A Record of the Progress of the People*, IV (London: Cassell and Company, 1905), 450.

⁵ Samuel Fortrey, *England's Interest and Improvement* (Cambridge: Printed by John Field for the University, 1663), pp. 24-26.

Velvets, satins, etc., made at Lyons	£ 150,000
Silks, taffetas, etc., made at Tours	300,000
Silks, ribbons, laces, & buttons from Paris	150,000
Serges, made at Chalons, Rheims, & Amiens	150,000
Beavers & felt hats from Paris, Rouen, & Lyons	120,000
Feathers, fans, girdles, etc.	150,000
Pins, needles, tortoise shell combs, etc.	20,000
Gloves, made at Paris and Rouen	10,000
Paper of all sorts, made in Auvergne, Champagne, etc.	100,000
Ironmongery wares, made in Forreets, Auvergne	40,000
Linen cloth made in Brittany and Normandy	400,000
Household stuff, such as beds, mattresses, etc.	100,000
Wines from Gascony, Nantes, Bordeaux	600,000
Aquavita, vinegar, etc.	100,000
Soap, honey, almonds, olives, prunes, etc.	150,000
Grand Total	£2,540,000

This unfavorable balance of trade was completely reversed by the Huguenot artisans who established themselves in England and carried on the manufacturing which they had formerly practiced in France. For not only were these refugee workers exceedingly skillful, industrious, and frugal, but they brought with them important trade secrets and special knowledge of manufacturing processes, such as the particular method of imparting luster to silks, and the liquid composition used to soften the skins to be made into beaver hats. Then too, they brought with them the reputation that had been gained by French-made goods over the centuries. This reputation was of no small importance, for as Colbert was accustomed to saying: "The fashions were worth more to France than the mines of Peru were to Spain." Prior to the Revocation, only those articles with a French name could find a purchaser among people of fashion in London, or indeed anywhere in Europe; but afterwards, the Huguenot refugees made it possible for English customers to buy French-made goods that had been manufactured in England. "Nay," says a writer of the time, "the English have now so great an esteem for the workmanship of the French refugees, that hardly anything vends without a Gallic name."⁷

As a result of the new manufactures brought into the country by the Huguenots, and their improved methods in industries already established, England's unfavorable trade balance was completely wiped out early in the eighteenth century. By the year 1723, the importations from France had diminished in value nearly two million pounds as compared with the year 1683. In his *Annals of Commerce*,⁸ Macpherson shows this decrease by items as follows:

Importations from France	Amount of Decrease
Of silks of all kinds	£ 600,000
Of flax cloth, sail cloth, and canvas	50,000
Of beaver hats, glassware, and clocks	220,000
Of various kinds of paper	90,000
Of hardware	40,000
Of fabrics of Chalons, Picardy, & Champagne ..	150,000
Of French wines and brandies	280,000
Total decrease	£1,880,000
(Year 1723 as compared with year 1683)	

⁷ Samuel Smiles, *The Huguenots*, p. 262.

⁸ David Macpherson, *Annals of Commerce*, II (London: Printed for Nichols & Son, and Others, 1805), 12, 609.

Both in value of output and in number of people employed, silk weaving was the leading industry established by the refugees. The French exiles brought to England looms like those in use at Lyons and Tours. A common workman named Mongeorge brought the secret, only recently discovered at Lyons, of glazing taffeta. Other Huguenot workmen greatly improved the designs of brocades and figured silks. In 1694 there were one thousand looms at Canterbury, but the great center of the silk weaving industry was in London. There the quarter known as Spitalfields was almost exclusively peopled by Huguenot refugees who turned out immense quantities of lustrings, velvets, taffetas, and mingled stuffs of silk and wool. It was calculated that 100 pounds of raw silk imported from Italy would keep 900 persons in work for a week, and in 1689 there were no fewer than 40,000 families living by the manufacture of silk.⁹

In short, Spitalfields succeeded to a large share of the industry for which Lyons and Tours had long been famous. The "Weavers' Committee" presented a petition to Parliament in 1713 which called attention to the fact that silk production was twenty times as great as in 1664; that the black silk made for hoods and scarfs was worth £300,000 a year; and that all kinds of colored silks, brocades, satins, velvets, silk hosiery, ribbons, and lustrings were being produced in England, and were fully equal to those made in France.¹⁰

The refugees brought many other important trades and industries with them besides that of silk weaving. At Ipswich they set up a factory for the manufacture of fine linen, also called cambric because first fabricated in the town of Cambrai. Other linen factories were established at Edinburgh in Scotland, in which country several thousands of the refugees had settled. Another product of the Ipswich factory was sailcloth, before then almost exclusively imported from France. This branch of the industry was looked upon with especial favor by the authorities since sailcloth was essential for the Royal Navy—the chief defense of the realm. The printing of calicoes was introduced by a French Huguenot who established a factory at Richmond. Calico and cotton goods soon became fashionable. The women favored them because they were light and delicate, and moreover, as Defoe pointed out, they cost only about one-eighth as much as woolen goods.¹¹ But there was strong opposition to this industry as injurious to the long-established woolen trade, and in 1720 the production of calico was prohibited by law. Another French refugee set up a factory at Exeter for the manufacture of tapestry, some of his workmen having come from

⁹ H. D. Traill (Ed.), *Social England*, IV, 451.

¹⁰ Samuel Smiles, *The Huguenots*, p. 262.

¹¹ H. D. Traill (Ed.), *Social England*, IV, 585.

the Gobelins at Paris.¹² The manufacture of lace which had been first introduced into England by Walloon refugees was greatly improved by Huguenot lace-makers from Burgundy and Normandy.

Before 1685 the only paper made in England was a coarse whitish-brown paper from the mills in Kent. All the finer kinds of paper for writing and printing were imported from France, the value of which amounted to £100,000 annually. After the Revocation, Huguenot refugees from Bordeaux and Auvergne introduced the manufacture of fine paper into England. Henry de Portal, descendent of a Huguenot family in Bordeaux, won such a high reputation for his factory in Hampshire that the Bank of England gave him the business of supplying its paper for banknotes. This privilege was still being enjoyed by a descendent of the de Portal family two hundred years later.¹³

Hat-making was another important industry brought to England by the refugees. In France this manufacture had been almost exclusively in the hands of the Huguenots. They alone possessed the secret of the special liquid composition used in preparing rabbit, hare, and beaver skins for the manufacture of fine hats. After 1685 so many of these hat-makers went to London that France lost this trade entirely for the next half century. Thereafter, all persons of fashion, including the French nobility, wore English hats. Even the Roman cardinals were supplied with hats from the Huguenot factory established at Wandsworth in England.¹⁴

Glass-making had been carried on in England prior to 1685, but the industry had made little progress and was practically confined to the manufacture of bottle glass. It remained for the Huguenot refugees to introduce the making of crystal and plate glass, the supply of which England had been importing from France. Within a few years, the Huguenot factories in England were not only supplying the domestic market but were exporting quantities of glassware of all sorts. Many of the terms still used in this industry show the French influence. For example, the "found" (Fr. *fondre*) is the melting of materials into glass; the "siege" (Fr. *siège*) is the place where the crucible stands.

Many manufactures which had been already established in England were greatly improved by the influx of experienced workmen from France. Among these may be mentioned the manufacture of clocks and watches, the cutting and mounting of jewelry, the making of surgical instruments, of cutlery and hardware of every sort, and of pottery. A striking evidence of the improvements brought about by the refugees is to be found in the records of the London

Patent Office. Immediately after the Revocation, these records contain hundreds of French names. To take a single example, a patent was granted in 1686 to M. Dupin, A. de Cardonels, C. R. M. de Crouchy, and J. de May, for the making of fine writing and printing paper, "they having lately brought out of France excellent workmen, and already set up several new-invented mills and engines for making thereof, not heretofore used in England."¹⁵

The table cited from Macpherson, showing the decrease of importations from France into England, tells only half of the story. Alongside that table should be placed the statistics of the increase in England's export trade in the eighteenth century. In the decade 1705-15, England's exports increased nearly 50 per cent; between 1715 and 1750, the increase was 60 per cent; and from 1750 to 1797, exports rose 200 per cent. At the end of the eighteenth century, England was sending abroad more than seven times the value of the goods exported in 1705, as shown in this table given by Botsford:¹⁶

VALUE OF ENGLAND'S EXPORTS

Year	Amount
1705	£5,308,966
1715	7,696,573
1750	12,599,112
1797	38,506,771

King Louis XIV made several belated efforts to remedy in part the loss of his Huguenot workmen. His ambassador to England, Bonrepaus, offered ten pistoles and full immunity to every worker in the Ipswich factory who would return to France. Another ambassador, Barrillon, distributed 2,300 livres to the workers in a single factory to induce these dissenters to recross the Channel. Only about 500 of all the thousands of exiles could be bribed to return.

Historians have devoted many pages to the tremendous loss in life and treasure occasioned by the wars of conquest undertaken by King Louis XIV. Less attention has usually been given to the fact that while wasting the resources of his kingdom in wars to enlarge its physical boundaries, King Louis did not hesitate to restrict its spiritual boundary. The French monarch had no more loyal subjects than his Protestant dissenters, yet he relentlessly harried them out of his kingdom. So while the "Sun King" was hurling his armies abroad to expand the area of France, in the very same hour he was presenting his foes with a great industrial empire. The foundation stone of Prussian industry was laid by the Huguenots, but England was the country which benefited most from the dispersal of French artisans and manufacturers. France had sowed the seed of industrial progress; England reaped the harvest.

¹² M. Charles Weiss, *History of the French Protestant Refugees*, I, 298.

¹³ Samuel Smiles, *The Huguenots*, p. 266.

¹⁴ P. D. Traill (Ed.), *Social England*, IV, 582.

¹⁵ Samuel Smiles, *The Huguenots*, p. 264.

¹⁶ J. B. Botsford, *English Society in the Eighteenth Century* (New York: The Macmillan Company, 1924), p. 33.

A Word Test in the Social Studies

K. C. FRIEDMAN

Chairman, Social Studies Department, North High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota

One of the common difficulties in the teaching of the social studies arises from the use of words and phrases which are considered to be basic to an understanding of the field. Many teachers have, no doubt, come across standardized tests of concepts which endeavor to show the pupils' grasp of a particular group of words. It appears to the writer that the administration of such a test and its attendant follow-up work is a desirable procedure. But there is more that the individual classroom teacher can do. That is, to adapt his own study to his instruction.

Such a study can be made easily; it can be a "home-made" product and need not require any complex statistical procedure nor any advanced statistical training. In this article, the author describes a technique which he employed after giving some thought to the problem of vocabulary. His purpose is not to present the results of some highly technical research, but to show what the average classroom teacher can do with a minimum of effort and without any more mathematical background than the ability to compute a percentage or an average.

From a survey of the pages of the textbook that were included in the semester's work of two eleventh-grade United States history classes, a list was compiled of fifty words or phrases which were related to the social studies and which the pupils were expected by the textbook author to understand. It was kept in mind that no conscious effort be made particularly to teach any of the words after the study was begun, and that no preference in compiling the list be given to any words already taught.

Twenty-five phrases on the list were taken from pages already covered by the class, as follows:

- | | |
|------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Skilled labor | 12. Necessities of life |
| 2. Raw products | 13. Depreciated paper currency |
| 3. Internal improvement | 14. Social problem |
| 4. Westward movement | 15. Repudiate all debts |
| 5. Admission to statehood | 16. Large-scale production |
| 6. Economic resources | 17. Spokesman of big business |
| 7. Paper blockade | 18. Minimum wage scale |
| 8. Contraband of war | 19. Humanitarian program |
| 9. Border slaveholding state | 20. Interstate commerce |
| 10. Internal revenue duty | 21. Transportation facilities |
| 11. Payable in kind | 22. Trade relations |

- | | |
|-----------------|--------------------------------------|
| 23. Fiat money | 25. Stimulate scientific agriculture |
| 24. Home market | |

The other twenty-five phrases were taken from pages yet to be studied, as follows:

- | | |
|---|--|
| 26. Foreign affairs | 39. Labor difficulties |
| 27. Governmental expenditures | 40. Temperance societies |
| 28. Government supervision of industry | 41. Stimulating immigration |
| 29. Stimulate industry | 42. Racial stock |
| 30. An experiment in social planning | 43. Women's rights |
| 31. Moneyed interests | 44. Our imperialistic ambitions |
| 32. Reform movements | 45. Our increased prestige in world affairs |
| 33. Conservation of our natural resources | 46. Removal of the causes of economic friction |
| 34. Domestic issues | 47. Mobilization of public opinion against war |
| 35. Restriction of immigration | 48. Traffic in harmful drugs |
| 36. Standard-bearers for the election | 49. International law |
| 37. Independent in politics | 50. Far East |
| 38. "Pork barrel" legislation | |

The fifty-six pupils included in this study were asked to give any illustration that they could think of to indicate their proper use of the terms. They were not asked to define the words; rather the purpose was to determine the ability of the pupil to employ practical application of them. The test was given about mid-way in the term, and it required subjective scoring due to the nature of the questions. Therefore, the teacher's judgment had to be relied upon throughout in determining what should be considered correct or wrong, and in maintaining uniform standards. The following are examples of what would be acceptable responses:

Admission to statehood: Vermont admitted as a state.

Depreciated paper currency: Continental currency.

Social problem: Adequate housing.

Domestic issues: Government aid to farmers.

In a test as subjective as this, naturally the teacher must set up his own standards of what responses are adequate. Perhaps the best way of judging the answers would be to take one item at a time and go through all the pupils' papers only for that particular

one, and then move on to the next item. One should be able to maintain a more rigid standard thereby.

If satisfactory performances for any items be exhibited when seventy-five per cent of the class made a creditable response, then it was shown only for five items in the first half of the test, these being numbers 2, 3, 12, 21, 24, and for two items in the second half, numbers 43 and 50. It would be evident from such a poor showing that a great deal of specific word study could be utilized by the classroom teacher. It is also obvious that discussion and reading can degenerate into mere verbalism when the fundamental understandings are lacking. The responsibility must be shared by textbook authors as well as by teachers. Very often, even the general language of high school textbooks is too advanced for high school pupils. It must always be borne in mind when dealing with pupils of this age that they do not have the maturity of undergraduate and graduate students of a college or university.

In comparing the first half of the test, which the pupils were assumed to have already covered in class, with the second half, the average number of right answers for both were thirty and nineteen, respectively. In other words, not quite fifty-four per cent of the pupils, on the average, indicated sufficient knowledge about the first part, and thirty-four per cent offered adequate information about the last part. This would show some favor to that half of the list of words in the textbook which had already been covered, notwithstanding the fact that there had

not been the sufficient mastery referred to in the above paragraph. On the other hand, it does show that many words which were, presumably, not taken up in class had already been learned anyway, at some other time and place.

Finally, it should be of interest to list those terms which at least seventy-five per cent of the pupils missed. These are numbers, 11 and 15 in the first half and 29, 30, 31, 32, 34, 36, 37, 38, 40, 46, and 49 in the second half of the test. Here is a list of common expressions, which undoubtedly are overworked wordage, in view of their empty meanings for students.

Thus, despite the superior showing by pupils on the first half of the test, it is easily seen that the complete mastery of these terms is far from attained.

It is too easy for teachers in the secondary school and for authors to over-estimate the extent of pupils' vocabularies and to assume that the words which are used were learned in lower grades. It is too convenient to use terms over and over and permit them to degenerate into mere empty words. Teachers and writers alike, must constantly guard against this and should make every effort to take care that their discussions are fully understood and that all pupils have the opportunity to get the same meanings from the words which are used. A simple test constructed like the one described here and which is given without previous instruction related to its content can easily show the importance of this problem.

Illustrative Materials for the Classroom

FLORENCE BERND¹

Director, Teachers' Materials Bureau, Macon, Georgia

In offering this series of articles combining source material, music and art, there has been a fourfold purpose:

1. To give access to illustrative material not easily obtainable by the vast army of social studies teachers in the rural sections and smaller towns and cities where library facilities are limited.
2. To provide an opportunity for cooperative contributions by members of the class and also of the music and art departments. With this in view, one group may give a report on the worthiness of the source, another group may present an explanation of the picture in

relation to the source as a basis for discussion, while a third may be responsible for an account of the origin of the music and its value.

3. To impress upon young minds the basic fact that this world's progress and culture stem from many lands and ages—a Roman Pope, a German reformer, an English chronicler, king and commoner of many diverse creeds and callings.
4. To open up ever widening horizons that may lead boys and girls to find within themselves some measure of contentment to counterbalance the feverish dependence on externals in today's distraught world.

Only the simplest music has been offered in order that it may be within the range of the young. This

¹Miss Bernd was formerly head of the history department of the Lanier High School for Boys and now has headquarters at the Lanier High School for Girls, Macon, Georgia.



ST. AUGUSTINE LANDING IN KENT

may be richly supplemented in many cases by the use of victrola records, though nothing can take the place of student participation.

It may be said that this is no untried plan. It was used over a long period with ninth grade boys to whom one might doubt its appeal, but on the contrary and perhaps a bit disconcerting to the teacher, it is a fact that after many years, these boys, grown into mature men have remembered the music and the picture and the contents of the source, when they have forgotten the name of the textbook.

THE ARRIVAL IN KENT OF THE MISSIONARIES SENT BY GREGORY THE GREAT²

In the year of our Lord 582, Maurice, the fifty-fourth emperor from Augustus, ascended the throne and reigned twenty-one years. In the tenth year of his reign, Gregory, a man renowned for learning and behavior, was promoted to the apostolic see of Rome, and presided over it thirteen years, six months,

and ten days. He, being moved by divine inspiration, about the one hundred and fiftieth year after the coming of the English into Britain, sent the servant of God, Augustine, and with him several other monks who feared the Lord, to preach the word of God to the English nation. . . .

[Augustine, with his companions, arrived in Britain.] The powerful Ethelbert was at that time king of Kent; he had extended his dominions as far as the great river Humber, by which the southern Saxons are divided from the northern. On the east of Kent is the large Isle of Thanet, containing, according to the English way of reckoning, six hundred families, and divided from the other land by the river Wantsum, which is about three furlongs across and fordable in only two places, for both ends of it run into the sea.

In this island landed the servant of our Lord, Augustine, and his companions, being, as is reported, nearly forty men. They had, by order of the blessed Pope Gregory, brought interpreters of the nation of the Franks, and sending to Ethelbert, signified

² J. H. Robinson, *Readings in European History*, I (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1904), 97-100. Used with permission.

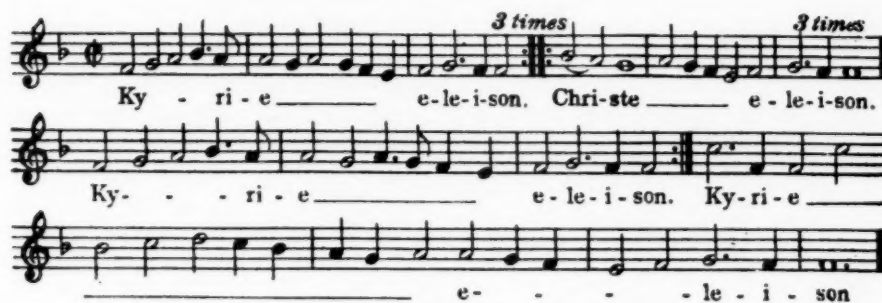
that they were come from Rome, and brought a joyful message, which most undoubtedly assured to all that took advantage of it everlasting joys in heaven, and a kingdom that would never end with the living and true God.

The king, having heard this, ordered them to stay in that island where they had landed and that they should be furnished with all necessities till he should consider what to do with them. For he had heard of the Christian religion, having a Christian wife, of the royal family of the Franks, called Bertha, whom he had received from her parents upon condition that she should be permitted to practice her religion with the bishop, Luidhard, who was sent with her to preserve the faith.

answered thus: "Your words and promises are very fair, but they are new to us and of uncertain import, and I cannot approve of them so far as to forsake that which I have so long followed with the whole English nation. But because you are come from far into my kingdom, and, as I conceive, are desirous to impart to us those things which you believe to be true and most beneficial, we will not molest you, but give you favorable entertainment and take care to supply you with the necessary sustenance; nor do we forbid you to preach and gain as many as you can to your religion."

Accordingly, he permitted them to reside in the city of Canterbury, which was the metropolis of all his dominions, and pursuant of his promise, besides

KYRIE ELEISON, LORD HAVE MERCY



V Dominus vobiscum. | R. Et cum spiritu tuo. | V. Oremus, &c. | R. Amen,
After the Epistle. | R. Deo gratias.

"Gregorian music is the name given to a large collection of ancient ecclesiastical music which has been connected with the service and the service books of the Roman church ever since early Christian times. The whole tendency of modern inquiries has been to show that Saint Gregory had a personal share to say the least in the arrangement of the collection. It may be concluded that this Gregorian music of the Mass comes from Saint Gregory's hand practically unaltered."

Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians (Philadelphia: Theodore Presser Company, 1922.) Article, "Gregorian Music."

Some days later the king came into the island and, sitting in the open air, ordered Augustine and his companions to be brought into his presence. For he had taken precaution that they should not come to him in any house, lest, according to an ancient superstition, if they practiced any magical arts they might impose upon him, and so get the better of him. But they came furnished with divine, not with magic power, bearing a silver cross for their banner, and the image of our Lord and Saviour painted on a board; and singing the litany, they offered up their prayers to the Lord for the eternal salvation both of themselves and of those to whom they came.

When Augustine had sat down, pursuant to the king's commands, and preached to him and his attendants there present the word of life, the king

allowing them sustenance, did not refuse them the liberty to preach. . . .

As soon as they entered the dwelling place assigned them, they began to imitate the course of life practiced in the primitive church; applying themselves to frequent prayer, watching, and fasting; preaching the word of life to as many as they could; despising all worldly things, as not belonging to them; receiving only their necessary food from those they taught; living themselves in all respects conformably to what they prescribed to others, and being always disposed to suffer any adversity, and even to die for that truth which they preached. In short, several believed and were baptized, admiring the simplicity of their innocent life and the sweetness of their heavenly doctrine.

There was on the east side of the city a church dedicated to St. Martin, built whilst the Romans were still in the island, wherein the queen, who, as has been said before, was a Christian, used to pray. In this they first began to meet, to sing, to pray, to say mass, to preach and to baptize, till the king, being converted to the faith, allowed them to preach openly and to build or repair churches in all places.

When he among the rest, induced by the unspotted life of these holy men and their delightful promises, which, by many miracles, they proved to be most certain, believed and was baptized, greater numbers began daily to flock together to hear the word, and forsaking their heathen rites, to associate themselves, by believing, to the unity of the Church of Christ.

Visual and Other Aids

ROBERT E. JEWETT

Department of Education, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

Often teachers have had the experience, after attending a summer workshop, a summer session of a college or university, or through independent reading, of going back to their teaching positions stimulated by new ideas which they plan to put into effect only to find their efforts blocked by cautious administrators and the lethargy or suspicions of parents and the general public. Or a school administrator may, through similar experiences, be fired with the enthusiasm for introducing democratic administration into his school system only to find the teaching staff unwilling and unable to accept this new responsibility.

Teachers colleges, universities and state departments of education often are sensitive to this situation but have been unable to give sufficient moral support and information to the administration, teachers, parents and the general public which would help to alleviate this condition. The above agencies have been unable to effectively keep in contact with teachers and administrators after they have returned to their school systems.

The writer believes that the radio could provide the needed medium for continuous stimulation for good teaching. Colleges, universities and state departments of education can produce and sponsor various types of radio programs which would give moral support, inspiration, and information. This, in turn, would help to pave the way for thoughtful educational experimentation within the public schools.

One such type of program should center its attention upon informing teachers, parents and the general public concerning recent educational theory and practice. This program should bring to the radio audience narrations and dramatizations of specific curriculum experimentations being carried forward in the various schools. This type of program should draw upon plans which had been formulated in summer sessions of the colleges and universities of

the region and upon activities being carried forward or completed at the time the program was presented. Wherever possible, the educators and often the students and adult members of the community associated with the activity should participate in the program. In this manner interest, understanding and support of the particular educational activity would be increased in the home community. Also similar activities carried on in other communities would receive encouragement. Such a program should be of a non-technical nature, avoiding professional vocabulary as much as possible in order to appeal to the general public in addition to the members of the profession.

As an example of the way in which radio can be utilized to foster good teaching, let us briefly examine the role of education in our present war. If one visits American schools he will find a wide variety of thoughtful efforts on the part of teachers and administrators to utilize the schools more effectively as agencies to promote our war effort and prepare the nation for post-war reconstruction. These efforts are, however, usually carried on in isolation. A series of programs could bring before educators and the general public the various successful efforts on the part of individual colleges and high schools to promote our war effort. In this way other schools would benefit from the experiences which would be portrayed in the programs and the general public thus would be stimulated to a greater interest in the efforts of our war emergency.

The social studies teacher, through his knowledge of and interest in community forces and agencies, might well take the lead in organizing and presenting such a program. The weekly radio program, "Puzzled Parents," broadcast over station WOSU, is an example of this. The script for this program is written by Alan Griffin, professor of the teaching of social studies in the Department of Education, The Ohio State University. "Puzzled Parents" is an attempt to

inform parents and the general public of the way in which modern education is contributing to the development of pupils and to their adjustment to contemporary society. In this one-half hour program a brief skit presents a specific educational problem and then a group of educational experts discuss the program offering solutions which involve the contribution of the school to the child's development.

Such a program as this could be expanded by including various teachers and administrators throughout the region on the panel of experts. Also, after a problem situation had been presented, an actual solution which had occurred in a specific classroom or school could be given. This type of program, of course, is only one of many varieties which could be presented both to stimulate educators in the field and to inform the general public as to the vital services being performed by educators in their communities.

When inaugurating such radio programs as have been suggested, the particular problem of acquiring a large audience presents itself. One way of course is to rely upon the intrinsic value of the program. In addition to this, however, the following techniques should be employed. The State Department of Education through its comprehensive contacts with schools of the state should encourage the teacher and administrators to listen in on the programs. The state organization of the Parent-Teachers' Association should be informed of the purposes of the program and encourage their members to become a part of the audience. In this connection, P.T.A. programs could be built around these radio programs. Alumni associations of the various colleges and universities contributing to the radio programs could, through their organization, encourage their members to support these programs.

In this way the general public would come to a greater realization of the vital contribution which our schools are making to the growth and development of our democratic way of life. The public thus will understand more clearly the purposes which the schools have in mind and the methods by which they hope to attain these purposes and will be led to

greater cooperation with the schools. The teachers and administrators who are attempting pioneer advances in education will receive, to a greater degree, the intelligent cooperation of other members of their profession and of the general public. The rank-and-file of the teaching profession who may not otherwise become acquainted with promising innovations in education will thus become informed and inspired to carry forward educational activities of greater meaning than usual. Especially would this be true since the programs would stress actual activities which have been carried on in typical school situations and would not be just the "theories of college professors."

NEWS NOTES

Valuable information concerning war films may be found in the February and March 1942 issues of *Film Notes*. Also listed in the same issues are about 200 recommended films in a variety of fields. *Film Notes* may be obtained for \$1.00 a year or 10 cents a copy. Address: 45 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City.

A one-reel 16 mm. sound film entitled *The Development of Communication* has been released by Erpi Classroom Films, Inc., 1841 Broadway, New York City. This film depicts the need for improved methods of communication before the age of electricity and the inventions which made instantaneous communications possible.

The Philippine Islands, a one-reel silent film, depicting the industrial life of the islands immediately preceding the outbreak of hostilities, has been produced by Eastman Kodak Company, Teaching Films Division, Rochester, New York. The film includes a complete story of the hemp industry.

A pamphlet entitled, *Five Years of Achievement (1936 to 1941) in School Radio*, has been published by the Canadian Broadcasting Company. This pamphlet gives a concise summary of the radio activities of schools in the Canadian provinces. Copies may be obtained without charge by writing to the Department of Press and Information, C.B.S., 55 York Street, Toronto.

News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

Head, Social Studies Department, Girard College, Philadelphia

AIR AGE AND GEOGRAPHY

The shift from land and water to air transportation is revolutionizing man's geographical outlook. American travelers going east to Paris or west to Peiping will think of traveling north. By air route,

Madison, Wisconsin, finds itself closer to Tokyo than does Los Angeles. The maps of tomorrow will feature the Northern Hemisphere rather than the Eastern or Western.

Impressed by the need for geographical re-orienta-

tion, the Civil Aeronautics Administration is taking the lead in teaching our citizens the implications of the Air Age. Under its auspices Professor George T. Renner of Columbia University described "The Nature of Geographical Ideas," in the May issue of *Teachers College Record*.

With brief descriptions, he listed nine essential concepts of geography which must be changed if men are "to live intelligently in an Air Age": concepts of the world, place, position, situation, location or space relation, environment, geographical adjustment, region, and place continuity. Professor Renner exemplified the changes by pointing out how our age-old ideas of direction and our accustomed notions both of geographical obstacles and of aids to travel by land and by sea are being revolutionized by the new facts of direction and transport by air. New routes will replace old, new trade centers will arise, and regions hitherto neglected will become more important than some now favored. New maps will take the place of old, showing new projections and new central axes.

A fine supplement to this more general article by Professor Renner is the more detailed description of the "Arctic Supply Line," in *Fortune* for July. Written by the distinguished arctic explorer and authority, Vilhjalmur Stefansson, it has already called forth favorable comment. Mr. Stefansson declares that, in tomorrow's world, the Arctic Sea will be the new Mediterranean. Strategically located around its shores are Great Britain, Russia, Canada, and the United States, while in the key geographical positions are Iceland, Greenland, and Alaska. Feeding this new Mediterranean are the great river systems of the Mackenzie, the Yukon, the Yenisei, and the Ob, which reach up to the great nations of the temperate zone. He remarked that, with rare exceptions, the capitals of the world's leading nations lie closer to the arctic circle than to the equator. His observations upon the practicality of a northwest passage, upon the Mackenzie-Yukon river highway, and upon arctic air bases are but a few of the telling points made by Mr. Stefansson as he hammers home the possibilities of traveling across the roof of the world.

Articles such as these are timely in view of the renewed talk of the need to teach geography in the senior high school. If that is done, will the course be on "Air-Age Geography?"

WORLD LEADERSHIP BY THE UNITED STATES

Current articles on post-war America and the post-war world seem almost legion, for concern about winning the peace is at least as great as concern about winning the war. Frequent reference to such articles has been made in this section in previous issues and attention need be drawn now to only a few new ones.

Vice-President Wallace, in an address last May before the Free World Association, described the present crisis in a way that won widespread approval and at the same time gave the setting for thought and action in the peace to come. The common man's revolution, he said, has long been under way and is now at its critical stage. Vital to its successful outcome are the Four Freedoms emphasized by President Roosevelt. That success, however, depends upon America's willingness to make the sacrifices necessary by assuming the burdens of a world leader determined to bring that revolution and those freedoms to all men and win the peace as well as the war.

This address on "The Price of Free World Victory" has been reprinted for distribution by the Office of Facts and Figures (Washington, D.C.) and has appeared in the June issue (No. 381) of *International Conciliation* and the June 1 number of *Vital Speeches*.

A profound interpretation of that revolution was made by the noted thinker, Reinhold Niebuhr, in the July *Fortune*, where he described "A Faith for History's Greatest Crisis." His principal concern was with the overarching, interpretative ideas needed as guides in building toward a new civilization. The revolution which Mr. Wallace said has been long under way, was surveyed by Professor Niebuhr from the fall of Rome and the rise of commercialism which put an end to the Middle Ages, to the Reformation and Renaissance whose rival interpretations of life now are bearing fruit.

There are many articles which make more definite proposals to meet the problems of peace. Last April, in *Current History*, Professor Richard V. Burks stated three requisites of "Our Leadership for Peace." The first is a permanent Anglo-American alliance to be the new center of world authority. During the nineteenth century, on the whole, that authority centered in the British fleet. But it is no longer equal to the task, in the face of powers like the United States, Russia, Germany, and Japan. The second requisite is the formation of a European political federation. Hitherto, complete national sovereignty, power politics, and other political policies have crippled economic Europe, which is a group of states closely interdependent for raw materials and markets. Such political federation, however, should not interfere with the cultural autonomy of its members. It should control coinage, taxation, and tariffs, and should police the continent. Professor Burks proposes that the federation be dependent upon the Anglo-American alliance.

This alliance, as the third requisite, should limit itself, neither exploiting weak nations and backward peoples nor erecting trade barriers and depriving any people of free access to world markets. Its guide must be the common welfare of all. The United States

itself must shoulder much of the costs of reconstructing Europe.

H. J. Timperley, the Australian journalist who, in *Asia* for July, outlined the "Peace Aims in the Pacific," seems also to posit Anglo-American leadership, although such great Asiatic nations as China and India must be full partners in the decisions.

Among Mr. Timperley's proposals for permanent peace in the Pacific are: (1) the assurance of a strong, sovereign China; (2) the guarantee of economic necessities to Japan; (3) the politico-economic reconstruction of Southeast Asia in terms of the welfare of all its people; (4) freedom for such nations as Korea and the Philippines; and (5) an international organization, sponsored by the United Nations, to maintain peace and carry out proposals such as these.

Complementing this article are those by Taraknath Das in the same issue of *Asia*, and Hu Shih and Dr. Bloch in the May and June numbers. See also Owen Lattimore's account of "The Fight for Democracy in Asia," in *Foreign Affairs* for July.

Viewing the post-war situation here at home, the eminent economist Alvin H. Hansen drew up a seven-point program to insure "Our Coming Prosperity" (*Common Sense* for June). Prosperity will not be easy to assure, and in the end must rest upon private business. But in the transition period the government will have to carry much of the load. For that reason a carefully planned program should be made to start us off in the right direction.

As Professor Hansen sees it, the government program for the period of adjustment "should be nothing short of a plan to rebuild America over the next two decades, to develop her latent resources, to increase her productive power and to raise her standard of living and purchasing power."

To these ends Professor Hansen proposes planned developments in seven areas: (1) Urban redevelopment by the nation and the states, on a colossal scale, to meet modern needs for health, recreation, slum clearance, transportation, and regional development. (2) Development of river valleys, as exemplified by TVA. (3) A railroad investment program to integrate and modernize railroads and streamline their financial and administrative structures. (4) Construction of interregional highways and elaboration of air transportation, and the integration of all communications in order to solve urban congestion and otherwise meet the needs both of the nation and of its component regions. (5) Rural development projects, such as electrification, rural housing, and soil conservation. (6) Federal public-works projects such as roads and bridges and harbor development, construction of buildings, and erection of research stations. (7) International development projects, especially in aid of China, Latin-American regions, South-

eastern Europe, and other needy areas.

Professor Hansen's program makes it clear, once more, that so often a national problem is also part of an international one. Such a program, worked out by us and in cooperation with other nations, by raising standards and increasing national income, will do much to help private enterprise find investments, employment, and markets.

THE WAR EMERGENCY AND TEACHING

Much is being written to advise teachers about how to deal with the war emergency. Indicative of what the secondary school teacher thinks about it is the report on the "Conference on the High School Teacher and the War Emergency," held early this year at Teachers College, Columbia University. The report occupies about half of the March issue of the *Teachers College Record*.

Of specific interest, in this report, are the summaries of the work of thirteen discussion groups of high school teachers in the various subject fields. The teachers of the social studies agreed that there was little need for new courses. There was, however, need for greater stress upon the study of our own hemisphere and the Far East. Forums, clubs, assemblies, and other group activities, it was thought, would do much to provide perspective and cultivate critical mind. It was thought also that it is of great importance in our time to promote friendly intercultural relations. In general, the social studies were looked upon as the means of promoting morale, improving the understanding of what is going on, and helping to prepare for the peace.

Professor Briggs opened the conference with an address entitled "Cassandra Speaks" (see this department in *THE SOCIAL STUDIES* for April). Professor Merle Curti analyzed some "Immediate Problems of the Schools" that are striving to preserve democracy.

Basic in any program, he said, is the appreciation that we are in a revolutionary period which extends far behind this war and far ahead. Our independent, national sovereignties have failed in a world economically interdependent; the old type of individualism functions badly in a technological age; and we have failed to work out within the framework of inherited institutions the new solutions, new adjustments, and new syntheses required.

What lies ahead? In Professor Curti's opinion more planning is necessary than we have been accustomed to. Our state must perform more public services than we have been used to. More effort must be made to provide work for everybody, as well as training. Nations must be more closely associated, whatever the specific means may be. The youth of today, as the men and women of tomorrow, will be concerned with the planning, techniques, instru-

mentalities, and purposes involved in all this. For these tasks teachers today must prepare youth.

In the opening section of the April issue of *The School Review*, on "Educational News and Editorial Comment," Professor W. C. Reavis summarized "What the Secondary Schools Are Doing to Help Win the War." New courses in vocations, consumer education, first aid and nursing, aviation, and radio communication are common. Often there is a change of emphasis in existing courses, especially upon the scientific and mathematical topics related to war. The variety of activities is great: speed-up of school programs to advance graduation; night courses and courses for adults in vocations; the work of air-raid wardens, public health, and defense measures; and promotion of public morale and education of public opinion.

The May number of *The Journal of Educational Sociology* was designed to help those dealing with "Youth and Postwar Reconstruction." Most of the articles dealt with planning, canvassing secondary-school planning, work programs for youth, and planning for Negro youth and for rural areas. Special articles told what the federal government and youth-serving organizations are doing and can do to carry out the planned programs.

Professor Floyd W. Reeves, editor of the issue, wrote a valuable editorial foreward. Four basic principles, he said, must underpin postwar planning for youth. It must be geared into the "over-all economic and social planning" of which it is a part. It must be pursued not as an emergency activity but as a continuous, normal one. Youth must be called in to aid in planning, else their hearts will not be in it and it will not work. The survival of the nation depends upon such planning for and by youth. They are the nation of tomorrow. Their attitudes, moods, aspirations, equipment, and morale will shape the nation and the world.

The Educational Policies Commission has prepared a check-list of one hundred suggestions to guide schools in this emergency. The checklist appeared in the commission's pamphlet, *A War Policy for American Schools*, and is reprinted under that title in the *Pennsylvania School Journal* for April.

PATRIOTISM

In the March issue of *The Harvard Educational Review* the historian, Walter Consuelo Langsam, discussed "San Patriotism." He drew attention to various meanings of patriotism and reminded readers that patriotism, as love of country, is a quite recent human accomplishment.

Several types of patriots are familiar. There are those who exaggerate the virtues of their nation and belittle the virtues of others. Such are the "patrioteers" and the "rabble rousers." Another type is

the indifferent patriot who takes no stand on important issues. His policy is to "let George do it." Such patriots often mistake indifference for tolerance and console themselves with the wishful thought that, in the end, things will straighten themselves out. But the commendable patriot is he who is proud of the achievements of his nation and will defend them, while he is appreciative as well of the achievements of other nations. He believes in no master race or superior culture and he holds that, in the symphony of human accomplishment, cultural differences are of greater worth than likenesses.

PATENTS

Several conditions which have developed since the rise of Big Business have encouraged abuses of our patent laws, defeating their original intent in part. The Temporary National Economic Committee recommended changes in the law in order to overcome these abuses. In *The Atlantic Monthly* for July, Thurman W. Arnold, Assistant Attorney General, and Lawrence Langner, distinguished patent lawyer, discuss the matter pro and con.

In "The Abuse of Patents," Mr. Arnold explains how monopolies and cartels work to confine the benefits of patents to monopolizing business rather than to confer the benefits upon the public. He argues that it is no longer desirable to give sole control of an invention to the owner of the patent. The owner should now have only the right to a royalty from all who use his invention, providing that he does not use his right as a means for restricting production.

Mr. Langner, replying to Mr. Arnold, states the well-known arguments explaining why "We Depend on Invention." He agrees with Mr. Arnold that legislation is needed to correct the abuses that have sprung up. He proposes that our anti-trust laws be amended to apply directly to patents and to provide that a defendant in a patent suit be acquitted of an infringement charge if it is shown that "the patentee is using his patent to break the antitrust laws." Such legislation, he declared, "would cure the entire situation."

This matter has become a vital one for our welfare, and an informed and sensitive public opinion is desirable.

GENERAL EDUCATION

By granting the baccalaureate degree to students completing the sophomore year or junior college, the University of Chicago formally accepted the idea that general education is carried to completion in the sophomore year while specialization flowers with the junior year. The baccalaureate degree, if conferred then, would mark the end of one's formal general education. But the university has been criticized for its bold move.

The former head of its School of Education, Dr. Charles H. Judd, came to its defense in an article on "General Education and the Baccalaureate Degree," in *School and Society* for July 11. He reviewed the history of American education since colonial days to show that the action of the university is but the recognition of a long-time trend which other colleges, in due course, will follow. High school teachers will be interested in Dr. Judd's account of the very important role of the high school in the development of general education.

CURRICULA

The College High School of the Colorado State College of Education has developed a very flexible program that enables it to get on a wartime footing quickly. Professor Douglas S. Ward of the college and Dr. William L. Wrinkle, director of the school, told how it was done, in the May issue of *The Clearing House* ("We Changed to Meet War Conditions").

The curriculum is designed to promote three sets of learning experiences. Daily, for the first two hours, the program offers Life Problems. Teacher and pupils together make the choice of problems. Flexibility is provided by changing units every six weeks, allowing such new problems as first aid and radio and code service to be taken up with little delay. Over one hundred units have been taught, based on pupil purposes, needs and interests. Recently most pupils enrolled for units on world geography, Pacific affairs, European affairs, and national defense.

A second two-hour segment of the daily program is devoted to physical education and to electives in music and other arts. During the last third of the program pupils pursue special interests and needs, such as foreign languages, shorthand, science, mathematics, history, and consumer education.

In April, in *The School Review*, Charles M. MacConnell described the core program of the New School of Evanston Township, Illinois ("Core Studies in the New School of Evanston Township"). All pupils spend half their time in the core or general education program, and the other half in specialized activities. The core program aims to provide the experiences that should be common to all Americans. "Our subject matter is social science, our medium is English, and our method is that of science."

Mr. MacConnell told how the objectives were worked out cooperatively and described them. Then, at considerable length, he set forth the core program for the ninth grade, by way of illustration.

EVALUATION

The *Journal of Educational Research* for March was a special number on evaluation. Three articles by prominent specialists will appeal particularly to teach-

ers of the social studies: "Nature of Evaluation," by Clifford Woody; "General Statement on Evaluation," by Ralph W. Tyler; and "Techniques for Measuring Newer Values in Education," by J. Wayne Wrightstone.

These articles discussed the purposes, assumptions, techniques, and contributions of evaluation procedures. They, and the entire issue, will repay study.

In the April issue of *The Journal* of the National Education Association Dr. William G. Carr also discussed evaluation: "Measuring the Results of Civic Education." His article is the eighth in his series on civic education which has been running in *The Journal* since September, 1941. His account of the purposes and the specific practices in schools all over the country gives a fine picture of what is going on.

TEXTBOOK PUBLISHERS INSTITUTE

Last June, twenty-eight leading publishers of textbooks formed the American Textbook Publishers Institute. It will "study and seek to reach a constructive solution of all problems having to do with the use of textbooks as the tools of learning." Other purposes include the education of the public on the value of textbooks in the educational process, the improvement of the public service rendered by the textbook publishers, and the promotion of research in the field of both textbook and teaching problems affecting the use of textbooks.

ON RETIRING

Is retirement looming ahead? Then read Edwin C. Broome's "Some Thoughts on Retirement," in the July 11 issue of *School and Society*. Dr. Broome, now retired from the superintendency of Philadelphia's schools, gives the warning that retirement must be planned for and an activity program mapped out. He lists many of the occupations which retired teachers have been pursuing "with success and satisfaction." Dr. Broome's observations are made succinctly, concretely, and engagingly.

FOR THE TEACHER AND THE CLASSROOM

In this department, last April, the formulation of the new bill of rights by the National Resources Planning Board was outlined and briefly described. In the May issue of *Frontiers of Democracy* nine writers discussed respectively the nine planks of the new platform of rights. Among them were Arthur Garfield Hays, Eduard C. Lindeman, Paul R. Hanna, and Judge George Braden. The nine essays form a fine commentary on a highly significant document.

The May 18 issue of *The New Republic* carried a 32-page supplement on "A Congress to Win the War." Classes studying the Congressional elections this fall will be interested in this account of issues and legislation and the candidates' records on them.

In the June 8 issue of the same journal Max Lerner began a series of articles discussing the changing government of the United States. In the first article, "Toward an Affirmative State," Professor Lerner observed that the American tradition of ideas and attitudes, of laissez faire, of capitalism and of government is undergoing change. He pointed out the causes at work and declared that we are coming to regard government as a positive instrument for social good. The series is one of promise.

Two years ago, Vera M. Dean, Editor and Research Director of the Foreign Policy Association, summarized the story of the German conquest of European nations (*Foreign Policy Reports*, October 15, 1940). That account of "Europe Under Nazi Rule" is now followed, this year, by two *Reports*. The first, in the issue for June 1, was primarily economic and analyzed "Nazi Exploitation of Occupied Europe." The second will discuss the long-term Nazi objectives and plans for permanent domination of Europe. Just how Germany extends economic domination as fast as her army occupies a region is described with care by Mrs. Dean. Nazi thoroughness gives one pause and shock.

In this department last December, an account was given of the project of secondary-school administrators and social-science teachers to work out resource units on "Problems in American Life." At least five have appeared: *How Our Government Raises and Spends Money*; *American Youth Faces the Future*; *Man and His Machine*; *Recreation and Morale*; *Race and Cultural Relations*. Each subject is discussed by a specialist, in an essay of about 15,000 words, while an experienced secondary school teacher supplies a guide to aims, procedures, activities, readings, and evaluation. Address inquiries to the National Association of Secondary-School Principals or to the National Council for the Social Studies (both at 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington, D.C.).

In *High Points* for May, Hilda P. Shufro and

Alex Dorin of the East New York Vocational High School assembled a bibliography on "The Defense of Democracy." Books and pamphlets are listed which are readable, useful, and easily acquired. Explanatory notes accompany each reference.

Three recent issues of *Social Action* are useful for classes studying current problems: the February issue on "The Family—Covenant with Posterity" (functions, characteristics, contributions, problems); the March issue on "Housing—Program for Victory" (the program of defense housing and its value); the April issue on "A Way with Prejudice" (our race problems). *Social Action* is published by the Council for Social Action of the Congregational Christian Churches (289 Fourth Avenue, New York City).

Two recent articles interpreted democracy from the standpoint of teaching: (1) Newton Edwards, "Protecting Democratic Values in a Nation at War," in *The Elementary School Journal* for May. Professor Edwards of the University of Chicago is a member of the *Journal's* editorial committee. (2) F. S. Cillié, "Servitor in the Household of Faith," in *School and Society* for May 23. Assistant Superintendent Cillié of Alton (Illinois) Schools wrote of much the same matters as Professor Edwards but more briefly and colorfully.

The federal government, especially members of its Secret Service, have been urging citizens to "know their money." Secret Service men have been giving illustrated talks to school children, distributing literature, and otherwise pushing the campaign. A meaty, illustrated summary of this work appeared in *The Journal* of the National Education Association for May ("Protecting Our Money in Wartime").

In the same issue of *The Journal*, Gunnar Horn of Benson High School, Omaha (Nebraska), presented a bibliography of "American History in Fiction." He groups sixty novels in nine periods from Columbus's day to the present. Brief descriptions accompany the novels. References to several longer bibliographies of fiction and non-fiction are given.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD HEINDEL

University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia

Democracy, Liberty, and Property. By Francis W. Coker. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942. Pp. xv, 881. \$4.25.

Those who deal with the great imponderables set themselves a hard task. Professor Coker here tackles the difficult job of indicating the main lines of the American political tradition from its colonial origins

to its recent manifestations. He who essays, unaided, to materialize the political spirit of a great people necessarily pretends to the possession of unusual powers as a medium. Such high pretensions are not made by the author for he does not offer his own delineation. His work is, instead, an anthology. The thoughts and feelings which like tributaries

have lost themselves in building the stream of American political tradition are here revealed in representative selections from many illustrious Americans. The Constitutional Fathers are of course prominent in the list. While no detailed indication is possible in this brief review, the range of the list may be suggested by the fact that John Cotton and H. L. Mencken have been included.

The materials brought together in the book have been taken from an equally catholic variety of sources: sermons and court opinions, deliberations of constitutional bodies and personal correspondence, presidential messages and systematic treatises, essays and legal documents. The selections extend over more than three hundred years, from 1630 to 1941.

The collection is organized with reference to four focal points of American political discussion. The first section is concerned with the issue of political control. What hands shall hold the reins of political power? The second section centers about the problem of civil liberties. How shall the coordinate areas of government authority and individual freedom be delimited? The third part of the collection deals with the allied question of property rights, their nature and limitations in relation to the function of government. These three divisions make up most of the book. The last fifty pages are devoted to discussions of the moods and methods of political change.

Professor Coker explains that he has attempted to represent typical attitudes on both sides of the fundamental questions at issue. It is perhaps more exact to say that the selections reflect many shades and degrees of opinion in the debates which have swirled about these basic political problems, even though the varied views reveal a bi-modal tendency. The selections are admirably chosen, and the book offers any who care to traverse its nearly nine hundred pages a rich insight into the well springs of American political thought.

JOHN PERRY HORLACHER

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

America's Strategy in World Politics. The United States and the Balance of Power. By Nicholas John Spykman. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1942. Pp. xv, 500. Maps. \$3.75.

Professor Spykman has written an exceptionally interesting book and in many ways a valuable one, but its enduring value is diminished by the fact that it is a tract for the times rather than an objective, scholarly study. Even as a tract for the times it is marred by some obvious and serious defects in the handling of the highly controversial problems with which it deals.

Its interest lies mainly in the fact that it is a timely, fresh, hard-boiled re-examination of America's strategy

in world politics by a well known Yale professor of international relations and that it has been hailed as an up-to-the-minute application of the new "science" of geopolitics to this problem. Hitler's No. 1 brain-truster, Karl Haushofer, is the leading exponent of this science, which he also calls an art, and Hitler himself has given it a satanic aura by supposedly drawing up his blueprints for world conquest in accordance with it. Most readers in this country will find at least the charm of novelty in Professor Spykman's application of exotic concepts of *Machtpolitik* to their own world policy, which they are accustomed to think of as based on a decent respect for the opinions of mankind and the rights of other peoples, if not positively idealistic. They will also find in this book a new kind of map and a new way of looking at it. They are accustomed to a flat map based on Mercator's projection and divided into an Eastern and a Western Hemisphere, whereas Professor Spykman uses a globe instead of a map and divides it into a Northern and a Southern hemisphere.

In applying these basic concepts of geography and power politics to the problem of the world strategy of the United States, Professor Spykman, without neglecting other aspects of the problem, concentrates his attention mainly on two of them: first, the conflict in the United States between national isolation and intervention, and second, Pan Americanism, which he apparently equates with hemisphere isolationism. His long inquest, which is based upon extensive use of historical as well as contemporary data, results in the condemnation of both isolationism and Pan Americanism. These conclusions are supported by so formidable an array of evidence and are so trenchantly stated that his book would be valuable as a much needed spur to the advocates of Pan Americanism, if for no other purpose.

For all its excellent qualities, Professor Spykman's book leaves a great deal to be desired. For one thing its references to geopolitics may impress the general reader, but will hardly enlighten him, for it does not contain any systematic account of the subject. Such an account should have been given, partly because this new pseudo-science is still a mystery to most readers, and partly in order to bring out clearly the fact that there are wide differences of opinion among geopolitical experts and between Professor Spykman and the leading German geopoliticians. This book does not even give the reader any important information about the world's principal center of geopolitical studies, the Munich Institute headed by Karl Haushofer. The latter's name does not appear in the index, and even in the bibliography he is represented only by a cooperative volume which was published so long ago as 1928, whereas there is no reference to the *Zeitschrift für Geopolitik*, the organ

of Haushofer's Institute, which records the more recent findings of his school. These omissions are particularly regrettable in view of the fact that the German geopoliticians appear to have much more respect for the concepts of the Western Hemisphere and inter-American solidarity than does the author of the American book under review. That this paradox can be explained is no reason for ignoring it.

Exception must also be taken to the way in which Professor Spykman handles the problem of inter-American relations, to which he devotes approximately half his space. While it is true that there has been a good deal of gas and bombast in Pan Americanism, he has carried his attack on it entirely too far. That is, in fact, precisely what his discussion of inter-American relations seems to be—not the findings of an objective investigator, but an attack by a prosecuting attorney who is determined to discredit Pan Americanism. A certain lack of familiarity with the history of Latin America and inter-American relations is indicated by his statement (p. 344), made in connection with the Panama affair of 1903, that Venezuela seceded from Colombia in that year. The fact is that their separation occurred over seventy years earlier.

The present reviewer also believes that Professor Spykman has over-simplified—and, by oversimplification, confused—the nature of the conflict between isolation and intervention in the history of American foreign policy. According to him, there is and always has been a clear-cut issue between isolation and intervention, which he describes as two opposing "policies" which represent not only "two distinct geopolitical schools of thought" and "two different programs for the protection of the security and the interests of the United States" but also "profound differences in ideological outlook and political sympathy." Space forbids a discussion of most of the questions raised by this description of the isolation-intervention dichotomy, but two examples will suffice to suggest the reviewer's reasons for questioning its validity. In the first place, our history offers few examples of the cohesive and sharply differentiated groupings described by Professor Spykman. For example, the present Roosevelt administration, whose foreign policy he criticizes sharply, has long been interventionist; so has Clarence Streit, whose "Union Now" plan is given short shift in this book; and so also is Professor Spykman himself. Where, then, are the common policy, program, ideological outlook and political sympathy that ought, by Professor Spykman's definitions, to unite these three interventionists? In the second place, his description of the Monroe Doctrine as isolationist is quite misleading. As a matter of fact, Monroe's declaration of 1823 marked a resounding victory for interventionists over isolationists. Moreover, in the development of

our national policy the doctrine was not merely an extension of isolation from a national to a continental base but also the beginning of a breach in our whole isolationist system which has been progressively widened until today the United States is engaged in intervention all over the globe. The truth is that interventionists in search of historical support for their cause would do well to reverse Professor Spykman's attitude and to claim Monroe, his Doctrine, and Pan Americanism for their own.

It is therefore a pity that Professor Spykman needlessly exposed his flank by attacking a movement that he should have recognized as an ally. To be sure, if the lamb of Pan Americanism is ever to lie down with the lion of his brand of intervention, some adjustments will have to be made in order to remove the inconsistencies between them. The adjustment that he suggests (pp. 470-71), apparently as an afterthought, in his interesting but controversial blueprint for the peace settlement, is not a very happy one, nor does it seem to accord with his own rules for the game of international power politics as laid down earlier in the book. Some other mode of adjustment, however, would seem to be quite possible, and even if inconsistencies should remain, the history of this republic shows that our people have never bothered their heads very much about inconsistencies in their government's foreign policy. It also shows, however, that they have cared a good deal about the categorical imperatives of international morality which Professor Spykman dismisses as mere sentimentalism. Consequently, it would seem that a thoroughly realistic discussion of this whole problem ought to accord more weight to such "sentimentalism" than it receives in this book.

ARTHUR P. WHITAKER

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Latin America and the Enlightenment. Edited by Arthur P. Whitaker. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1942. Pp. xiii, 130. \$1.25.

A small book like this, made up of short papers by experts, all bearing on a particular subject, is a good answer to our Latin American needs. The matter dealt with—that eighteenth century movement which set reason up against authority and brought in liberalism and the scientific era—is well-suited to such a review. The obscurantism of Latin America has been a byword; here we are shown what can be said on the other side. Since most of the evidence is source material—the records of scientific and philosophical societies, travelers' letters, testimony in civil and ecclesiastical courts, contemporary inventories of libraries and import lists—its importance is basic. Voltaire, Rousseau, Montesquieu, Descartes, Newton, Leibnitz, Locke and the rest were all read

in Latin America well before 1800. Even then the Americas were a part of the world of Western thought.

For reality we need perspective, however, as well as the careful inventory. The root of the *leyenda negra* of Latin American backwardness has always been in its unleavened mass of non-intellectual, non-political souls. To avoid this fact—never to estimate what proportion of the people of Peru (or even of the intellectuals of Peru) read Descartes—leaves the Enlightenment pretty well in the realm of theory. Furthermore, for historians to dismiss certain suppressions of intellectual freedom as occasioned by an *accidental* association with political unrest shows perhaps an exaggerated devotion to their subject.

It is ungrateful, however, to criticize such useful studies for what they do not do. With the exception of the last paper, A. S. Aiton's "The Spanish Government and the Enlightenment in America," which hardly deals with the Americas, all of these essays make valuable contributions to the history of the Western Hemisphere. Hussey's presentation of the French influence, Lanning's new evidence on enlightened Spanish Americans, Marchant's similar study of Brazil, the forewords of Federico de Onís and Whitaker, and in particular, Bernstein's "Some Inter-American Aspects of the Enlightenment"—are evidence that the writers of American history are getting free of their isolationism.

ELIZABETH WILDER

Library of Congress
Washington, D.C.

Social Security Reserves. J. S. Parker. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Foreign Affairs. Washington, 1942. Pp. xvi, 340. \$3.00.

For the average person, including the average informed person, the 1939 amendments to the Security Act would appear to have made the subject of this book of historical interest only. For better or worse, for a complex of reasons more or less rational, by raising the immediate benefit burden on the fund and "freezing" contribution rates, in 1939 we made a decision that was universally accepted as a decision against a full reserve for the national old age benefit scheme. (A full or so-called actuarial reserve is one that is sufficient, taking into account the present value of future contributions and other income, to meet in full the present value of future benefits.) Even if this decision is taken as final, Professor Parker's book, and Professor Harris' recently published *Economics of Social Security*, would still be very worth while as summaries of reserve materials and reserve arguments.

As a matter of fact, the decision of 1939 is not, and cannot be, final. Even if we assume that the issue of full versus partial or contingency reserves is set-

tled, many important questions remain under any reserve plan. So pervasive and vital a complex of issues as is involved in financing a nationwide old age benefit system cannot be resolved in perpetuity. The basic reason is that old age finance and economics are intimately affected by, as they affect the general financial and economic structure. Mr. Roosevelt's recommendation in January 1942 for example that we raise old age insurance contributions comes as an anti-inflation measure: its effect will be inevitably to reintroduce discussion of old age reserves. So the Parker and Harris books are immediately as well as generally useful.

The Parker book is in three parts. Part I lays the background for understanding the original Social Security Act of 1935 and the important 1939 amendments. In Part II is summarized a really considerable quantity of experience, particularly American, and nowhere else available in compact form, in financing public and private retirement plans. Part III combines the author's conclusions on the applicability of this experience to the special case of the federal compulsory old age benefit scheme and a critique of the arguments on the economic and financial nature of the reserve.

His conclusions originate in what he considers the close analogy between "state and local old age compulsory old age insurance" and the federal plan. "If adequate [full] actuarial reserves are desirable for the sound financing of a retirement system, why oppose them in the federal system of old-age benefits? The answer to this question is to be found entirely outside the retirement system itself." Even if one restricts the comparison to governmental plans, the analogy to this reviewer is a great deal less than perfect. (This restriction at the same time raises the question of the pertinence of the materials on accounting and private life insurance and group pensions.) The author indeed admits that the parallel is not perfect but he comes nevertheless to the quoted conclusion. Then one by one he reviews the complex pro and con reserve arguments to see if "outside" factors explain the decision against the full reserve. Again the author admits the case is not one-sided; again he comes to an unequivocal conclusion: "The hard way is the best way," which to him means "a level premium, or approximately equal taxes for all generations," which in turn means a full reserve. Thus he goes even beyond the objective of the 1935 law, which would not have reached the maximum contribution rate of six per cent of payroll until 1949.

This book is stimulating. The author has a tendency to absolute statement and unqualified conclusion. He falls occasionally into a partisan and even a personal tone. But he makes many a penetrating observation, none the less stimulating for being sometimes less than completely informed or completely

fair. For this reason the book's contribution lies at least as much in its challenge to accepted thinking as in the materials that underlie the author's conclusions.

C. A. KULP

University of Pennsylvania
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Effects of Instruction in Cooperation on the Attitudes and Conduct of Children. By Bryan Heise. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, University of Michigan Monographs in Education, Number 2, January, 1942. Pp. ix, 98. \$1.00.

This is an experimental study to discover the possibilities of teaching children the democratic method of group thinking. It attempts to evaluate the Curtis cooperative technique which involves utilizing the suggestions of all members of the group and harmonizing and integrating these suggestions to make for unity in group thinking.

The study involved two hundred and seven pupils in grades five to twelve inclusive from four different schools: a two-room rural school, a rural consolidated school, a junior high school in a small city, and a senior high school in a large city. Two groups in each school were equated to form an experimental and a control group. The time of the experiment was twelve weeks. Teachers worked with their regular classes without interrupting the normal curriculum.

The control groups carried on their work in the normal manner. To make for uniformity and to acquaint the experimental groups with the new technique, provision was made for pupils' workbooks and teachers' guides as well as conferences and discussions for the teachers involved. Initial and final evaluations were made of attitudes, knowledge, performance, and efficiency.

An attitude test was prepared by using the Thurstone method of a self-rating scale based on equal-appearing intervals. A knowledge test, objective in form, was prepared from the material in the pupil workbook. The attitude and the knowledge test both showed that the experimental groups made greater gains. There was a natural growth in attitudes and knowledge from the lower to the higher grades, although it was more difficult for the older pupils to increase their scores.

Performance was evaluated by analyzing pupils' responses as recorded in sampled stenographic reports. A coded chart assisted in comparing all groups on a comparable basis. The experimental groups were superior in questions and replies dealing with suggestions, in incorporating suggestions with others or discarding them entirely, in harmonizing conflicting suggestions, and in the self-restraint and consideration shown others.

The efficiency test which consisted of the Trabue Language Scale, Form B failed to show any sig-

nificant difference between the experimental and control groups except that the former took more time. This may naturally be expected.

This study deals with a very timely problem. No doubt, the cooperative technique democratically applied is worthy of more attention in its classroom applications as well as in its theoretical implications. Incidentally, the study provides a technique for measuring some of the so-called "intangible" educational outcomes.

M. L. GOETTING

Baylor University
Waco, Texas

Johann Conrad Beissel, Mystic and Martinet, 1690-1768. By Walter C. Klein. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1942. Pp. vii, 218. \$2.25.

The publication of another volume of *Pennsylvania Lives* by the University of Pennsylvania Press will be gratefully noted by all students of Pennsylvania history. This will be all the more acceptable because in this study of a religious leader the Press is true to its promise to make available "a series of readable biographies which tell the stories of these individuals in their many fields of activity."

This is indeed a readable biography of an interesting and significant personality concerning whose life and work it has been hitherto difficult for any but specialists fully to understand. Dr. Klein has come well-prepared to untangle the facts and points of interpretation of an obscure and complex set of circumstances. He has done an excellent work. As a contribution to a better understanding of the religious, and indeed of the general social life of colonial Pennsylvania the book has real value. Readers, from the casually interested to the recognized specialist, will find much useful and correct information, from which a better understanding of at least a minority of the German Sectarians may follow. The literary style is good, and the make-up of the book is pleasing.

On the face of the author's statements in the "Bibliographical Note" the reader will be justified in having full confidence in his method and conclusions. The nature of the subject has compelled him to exercise his abilities in the criticism of the sources to a very high degree. The amount of reading and criticism involved is apparent in the "Note." When many more personalities and themes connected with Pennsylvania history have been as carefully and as exhaustively studied as Dr. Klein has done in this case, we will indeed be blessed with an equipment for a sound understanding and appreciation of the development of the life in Pennsylvania.

ROBERT FORTENBAUGH

Gettysburg College
Gettysburg, Pennsylvania

The Organization of Knowledge: An Introduction to Philosophical Analysis. By Glenn Negley. New York: Prentice-Hall, 1942. Pp. 373. \$3.00.

At the end of a day of the "continuing search for the revealing light of knowledge" (to use the author's dynamic words), I returned to my study to find the intellectual yardstick about which I had just been talking to a class on contemporary political and social thought. In academic manner, I sat down to glance critically at a few of its pages, but soon found myself reading on and on, for I had discovered a "newtopia" that was tough-minded and most essential for all those interested in trying to think rationally and realistically and eager to persuade others to turn from the semantics of mere verbalization to a penetration of the real meaning of things. The torrential flow of thought and words in the first chapter, "Thinking an Analysis," soon captivated me with their intellectual cadence: "The man who would thus sell his birthright of intellectual vigor for the pottage of sterile safety is a sickly coward, unworthy of the heritage of the past in which he finds refuge." The surging tempo of these words became the lighthouse along the downstream of Dark and Doubt, and not wishing to close my ears to the heavy tread of thought, I continued to read the words that spelled out the capitals of a scientific pattern for understanding the problems and issues of contemporary society.

Within the pattern of ideas as magnificent weapons, Negley's creatively powerful book is destined, unless I miss my guess, to carve out a lasting place in the analysis of what Oscar Cargill, in his *Intellectual America: Ideas on the March*, calls "ideodynamics." In three parts—"The Nature of Analysis," "Analysis and Sciences," and "Fallacies in Analysis," it surpasses the modest anticipation of the author's statement in the preface "that the organization of knowledge ought to be discussed." The Appendices provide "Experiments in Analysis" in a discussion of Bentham's individualism, Jordan's corporatism, and Austin's formalism.

In verification of my appreciation of the commanding need for such a book, I turned to students of all classes and was greeted with a universal endorsement of its content and method. We all agreed that the book had the fine distinction of being written in English, not in technical jargon.

C. N. SISON

Coker College
Hartsville, South Carolina

A Guide for Teaching Problems of Democracy, Newark: State of New Jersey, Department of Public Instruction, 1941. 75 cents.

This excellent monograph is carefully prepared. It avoids the pitfalls of many courses of study by

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being a cooperative undertaking. Classroom teachers, educational experts, and administrators composed the committee responsible for this syllabus. In addition to this much of the material was tested in the classroom.

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No teacher who is planning to revitalize his problems courses can afford to neglect this syllabus.

WALTER H. MOHR

George School
Pennsylvania

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

Our Economic Problems. By Herbert W. Bohlman and Edna McCaull Bohlman. New York, D. C. Heath and Company, 1942. Pp. 588. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Equality of bargaining power, as far as the parties to economic transactions are concerned, is the fundamental thesis of this secondary school textbook. With the assumption that the important problems of our economic life grow out of the purchase and sale of goods and services, the authors have divided their book into nine units, most of which study conditions surrounding the buying and selling of commodities, investments, credit, insurance, public utility services, and the services of labor. However, it is only in emphasis that this text differs from standard works, for production, consumption, exchange, value, and distribution are also considered.

Almost 200 illustrations and charts are used and the choice of these is excellent. Secondary school students have need of such visual aids in the subject of economics. Suggested individual and group activities are included in every chapter. These are varied and stimulating, as are the suggested classroom discussion questions. A list of readings accompanies each chapter and should prove useful to both the teacher and the more earnest student in the larger school districts. Unfortunately, not many of the books would be available in the small school library. The glossary of special vocabulary words is valuable for classrooms handicapped by a lack of dictionaries and for overcoming traditional student aversion to exerting special efforts to find the meanings of words essential to the understanding of the subject. Particularly fine is the chapter outline which precedes each chapter, an extremely helpful device which should be used more often than it is by writers of secondary school textbooks.

Full recognition is given by the authors to the tremendous role of government action in our economic system and they attempt to supply a "working knowledge" of what the government is doing, or might do, about the various economic problems under scrutiny. An interesting chapter is devoted to criticisms of our capitalistic system and another chapter to the possible substitutes for capitalism, offering fine opportunities for the ambitious teacher to arouse practical interests and to inculcate democratic ideals

at a time when the nation is under fire as being too complacent.

JOSEPH G. PLANK, JR.

Reading Standard Evening High School
Reading, Pennsylvania

The Republic of the United States, A History, Vol. 1—1493-1865. By Jeannette P. Nichols and Roy F. Nichols. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1942. Pp. xvii, 638. Maps. Illustrated. \$3.50.

This revision of a well known college text has been rumored for some time. Its appearance so soon after the original book seems to imply disappointment with the reception of the first form; the new production apparently is an effort at meeting the desires of more teachers. The most obvious change is the expansion to two volumes, with the point of division being the year 1865. This increasingly common arrangement undoubtedly mirrors the usual college course, no matter how peculiar it seems on casual inspection. The development of an ever increasingly complex world undoubtedly justifies more attention to the later periods, but a first semester covering 372 years and a second treating only 77 seems a trifle awry. At the moment only the first volume of the present survey has appeared; the second will presumably come later.

The present treatment is a real expansion, since Volume 1 is but little shorter than the former complete survey. The major part of this expansion takes place in the earlier periods, and in part because the new starting point is 1493 rather than 1575. Of the three major divisions (1493-1763, 1763-1819, 1819-1865), the first two have been practically tripled while the third is something less than doubled. As regards subject material, the increases are mainly political, diplomatic and western, which correspondingly imply a lesser proportionate emphasis on social and economic factors. The stress on the West is particularly notable.

The new volume is definitely improved in appearance. Somewhat less bulky, the type is larger and clearer, the paper is better and the binding is more distinctive. Maps, charts and illustrations have been doubled in number, and are well chosen and well reproduced. A reading list is given at the end of each chapter, rather than a reading list for each section at the end of the book, as formerly. In addition there is a list of books of general interest, a bibliography, the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution and a table of presidential cabinets at the end of the volume.

The expansion of the new volume does not mean a complete break with its predecessor; in fact considerable sections are reprinted in almost identical form. Social and economic material is still given con-

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siderable emphasis. The point of view has not been changed notably. The style is naturally similar to the earlier book, although a considerable number of passages have been made smoother. As before, comparatively little emphasis is given biographical factors, with the authors apparently much more impressed by impersonal trends than by individuals. The organization of the material has not been altered greatly, except of course for the changes made necessary by the expansion.

Whether the new volume will prove more attractive than the old and hence sell better is a decision reserved for the votes of many college teachers. The competition for sales is clearly becoming more severe every year—in part because the quality of the competitors has been improving. The present book is an able and authoritative presentation by recognized authors. The present reviewer hopes for its success.

ROBERT E. RIEGEL

Dartmouth College
Hanover, New Hampshire

The Way of Life Series. Edited by Eric Bender. Each 58 cents. *Basic Social Education Series.* Richard W. Bardwell, Editorial Director. Each 28 cents. Chicago: Row, Peterson and Company, 1941, 1942.

Again the publishers are to be commended for the attractive and interesting additions to the *Way of Life Series*. The new volumes are: *Talking Wires*, by Oslin; *Captains of the Sky*, by Munday; *Here Comes Tomorrow* (on the sciences), by Schoffelmayer; *Talking Shadows* (movies), by Jester; *Rolling Stones* (civil engineering), by Bennitt; *Warriors of the Sea*, by Stirling; *To the Colors*, by Dupuy; *Saddlebag Folks* (Kentucky mountaineers), by Raine; *Island Gateway* (about Ellis Island), by Bender; *Keep 'Em Flying*, by Williams; *Timber!* by Stevens; *Quicksand* (on slums), by Simkhovitch and Ogg.

Just as useful for teaching purposes are the additions to the second series, paper bound: *The Newspaper in American Life*, by Wittich; *Looking Ahead*, by Andrews; *Our Inland Seas*, by Zimmerman; *Man's Use of Plants and Animals*, by Cunningham; *America's Oil*, by Cumley; *On the Airways*, by Phillips; *On the Oregon Trail*, by Allen; *The Story of Trade*, by Schoneman; *Buffalo Caller*, by Clark; *Southern Colonial Days*, by Duffe; *New Amsterdam*, by Duffe; *Money and Banks*, by Thomson; *Down, the Santa Fe Trail*, by Cavanah; *Trade and Commerce*, by Waugh; *The Wise Consumer*, by Barry; *Planning Cities*, by Crane.

Generally, both series reflect a vital choice of subjects written with competence.

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Overseas America: Our Territorial Outposts. By Charles F. Reid. Headline Books, No. 35, 1942. Foreign Policy Association, 22 East 38th Street, New York City. Pp. 96. Illustrated. 25 cents.

The Territories, leased naval bases, and other parts of our overseas possessions number about thirty, great and small, in the Atlantic, the Caribbean, and the Pacific. Professor Reid gives the salient facts of the part filled by each of these possessions in our total military picture and summarizes the history, the geography, and the problems of the major areas. The many maps and charts add much to a non-technical survey of great value for classroom use.

Outposts of Defense. By William H. Haas. Special Public Policy Pamphlet. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1942. Pp. x, 82. 50 cents.

Largely about America's empire. Good.

Problems in American Life; a Series of Resource Units for Teachers in Secondary Schools. Prepared under the direction of The Committee on Education for Democratic Citizenship and The National Council for the Social Studies. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1942. Units 1-5. 56 to 80 pp. 30 cents each. Quantity prices.

Excellent pamphlets on *How Our Government Raises and Spends Money*, *American Youth Faces the Future*, *Man and His Machines*, *Recreation and Morale*, *Race and Cultural Relations*. All with teaching aids. Other titles available after September 1, 1942.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

World Order in Historical Perspective. By Hans Kohn. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1942. Pp. xiv, 352. \$3.00.

Urges the thesis that historical perspective shows that our four basic concepts—democracy, nationalism, empire and civilization—point in their own development and inner logic to the possibility of a world order.

Economic Principles and Modern Practice. By H. R. Mussey and Elizabeth Donnan. Boston, Massachusetts: Ginn and Company, 1942. Pp. viii, 840. Charts. \$4.00.

An understandable, up-to-date introduction to economics, with a balanced mixture of economic description and theory and a seasoning of history.

Manual for Analyzing and Selecting Textbooks. By John Addison Clement. Champaign, Illinois:

The Garrard Press, 1942. Pp. vi, 119. Graphs. \$2.00.

A professor of education at the University of Illinois has prepared this guide for supervisors and others. Contains items and criteria which are considered consequential. Companion to a larger, forthcoming volume on the use of textbooks.

The Modern High School Curriculum. By Paul E. and Natalia M. Belting. Champaign, Illinois: The Garrard Press, 1942. Pp. 276. \$2.50.

A comprehensive analysis of the curriculum. Chapter on the social studies is presented to show how the principle of integration may be applied when this material is presented in a functional manner. Based largely on experience in Illinois.

The Economic Reconstruction of Lithuania after 1918. By Anicetas Simutis. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. xiii, 148. Tables. \$1.50.

Works such as this should be of notable assistance in planning for post war reconstruction. Shows the progress made by Lithuania after the World War.

Background of World Affairs. By Julia Emery. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Company, 1942. Pp. x, 324. Illustrated. \$1.72.

Concise, readable book to aid the understanding of high school students. Useful teaching aids.

The New Deal: Will it Survive the War? Carroll Atkinson. Boston, Massachusetts: Meador Publishing Company, 1942. Pp. 144. \$1.50.

Partly prompted by a strange uneasiness at the direction of the New Deal. Resents especially the unwillingness to reform Jersey City. Raises the question whether politics will be allowed to undermine "the war effort as they have the 1933 New Deal social legislation."

Regional United States. By Hannah Logasa. Boston, Massachusetts: F. W. Faxon Company, 1942. Pp. xi, 71. \$2.00.

This selected list of books on regional United States should find a place in every school library. The basis for selection was one of general usefulness rather than regional completeness. No. 69 in Faxon's Useful Reference Series.

John Brown's Body. By Stephen Vincent Benet. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1942. Pp. xxxviii, 432. Maps. \$1.32.

This high school edition has been edited and annotated by Mabel A. Bessey. Very suitable for collateral reading.

The United States. A Brief History. By Allan Nevins. New York: Oxford University Press, 1942. Pp. 140. Maps. \$1.50.

A capable synthesis written primarily for the British public. Part of the effort to have England learn more about the United States.

The Women's Trade Union Leagues in Great Britain and the United States of America. By Gladys Boone. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. 283. \$3.50.

A vivid account that adds to the literature of labor unionism and feminism. Author is acquainted with both British and American experience.

The Story of Modern Europe. By T. W. Riker. Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942. Pp. vi, 382. Illustrated. \$2.40.

A very competent and teachable text that should prove interesting for the younger students.

Selling. By Earl G. Blackstone, Claude C. Crawford and Eltinge Grinnell. Boston, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1942. Pp. vii, 338. Illustrated. \$1.60.

A practical text.

Foreign Devil; The Adventures of an American "Kim" in Modern Asia. By Gordon Enders. New York: Simon and Shuster, 1942. Pp. 307. \$2.50.

A colorful narrative of an adventurous career including a term as confidential adviser to the Grand Lama of Tibet. Highly recommended for school reading.

The Academic Man; a Study in the Sociology of a Profession. By Logan Wilson. New York: Oxford University Press, 1942. Tables. \$3.00.

A "must" book for every member of this species and anyone mildly interested in the homo academicus. Observes that the internal problems of the major professions, as well as their integration with the social order, have been rather neglected.

TechniData Handbook. By Edward Lupton Page. New York: The Norman W. Henley Publishing Company, 1942. Charts. Pp. 64. Spiral Binding. \$1.00.

Information for technical students.

The Nature of Literature. By Thomas C. Pollock. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1942. Pp. xxiv, 218. \$3.00.

A stimulating study of literature as a social phenomenon. Attacks the "bricklayer" theory of scholar-

ship, which exalts the virtues of collecting factual bricks but neglects the fundamental structural plans. Uses also the newer sciences of semantics and syntactics.

Canciones Tipicas. By Irma Labastille. New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1942. Pp. 48. Illustrated. 72 cents.

Contains a beautiful and characteristic group of nineteen songs from sixteen of the Latin American Republics. Each song is prefaced with descriptive and explanatory notes. English translations are provided. These songs may be given a special dramatic sequence for public performance with "Under the Southern Stars" furnished with the book.

The Strength of Nations. By George Soule. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942. Pp. 268. \$2.50.

This book attempts to illuminate some of the problems of economics and politics by the recent advances in the knowledge of psychology and psychiatry. Begins a basic reevaluation of our attitude and method in dealing with the ills of society.

Robert Alexander, Maryland Loyalist. By Janet Bassett Johnson. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1942. Pp. ix, 152. \$2.50.

A sympathetic portrait.

History of the United States. By Dwight L. Dumond. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1942. Pp. viii, 882. Maps. \$4.00.

A general introduction to American history.

Living in the Social World. By James A. Quinn and Arthur Repke. Chicago, Illinois: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1942. Pp. viii, 536. Illustrated. \$1.92.

A good text designed for basal use in all high school sociology and social problems courses.

The Wind Blew from the East. By Ferner Nuhn. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1942. Pp. ix, 300. \$3.00.

A profound study in the orientation of American culture. Discusses the eastward pull and the westward movement of our culture. Discusses Henry James as well as our "lost generation."

Democracy, Liberty, and Property. Edited by Francis W. Coker. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942. Pp. xv, 881. \$4.25.

Readings in the American political tradition presenting typical attitudes on both sides of fundamental questions at issue.

Graphic World History. By Jessie Evans and Suzanne Sankowsky. Boston, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1942. Pp. 560. Illustrated. \$2.00.

This brief, cogently simple account of the chief events and movements in history is organized so that high school students may use it as a basic text or as an introduction for more extensive courses.

Propaganda by Short Wave. Edited by Harwood L. Childs and John B. Whitton. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1942. Pp. xii, 355. \$3.75.

An exciting account based on the work of the famous Princeton Listening Center, Discusses German, French, and Italian propaganda, radio in international politics, atrocity stories, and America's short wave audience.

Our Democracy and Its Problems. By L. J. O'Rourke. Boston, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1942. Pp. xxi, 711. \$1.88.

An excellent text for the eleventh or twelfth grade. One of Heath's Correlated Social Studies.

Careers in Home Economics. By Florence Harris. Boston, Massachusetts: Little, Brown and Company, 1942. Illustrated. Pp. 64.

An appealing explanation.

Of the People. Edited by Harry R. Warfel and Elizabeth Manwaring. New York: Oxford University Press, 1942. Pp. xi, 699. \$2.30.

An inspiring collection of readings. Grouping by idea rather than by type of discourse. Notes help to unify the whole volume. Stimulating exercises are added. A valuable book for use in the classroom.

Bibliographies in American History. By Henry P. Beers. New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1942. Pp. xv, 487. \$4.75.

Indispensable tool. Conveniently organized. Some 4,000 titles have been added in this new edition, including several hundred cartographical titles. History and bibliography have been broadly interpreted.

Notable Women of Pennsylvania. Edited by Gertrude B. Biddle and Sarah D. Lowrie. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1942. Pp. xviii, 307. \$3.00.

Two hundred capsule biographies, first collected by the Committee of 1926 of the Philadelphia Sesquicentennial celebration, and now revised. Valuable addition to Pennsylvania history.

World History. By A. E. R. Boak, Howard R. Anderson and William L. Langer. New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1942. Pp. xvi, 554. Illustrated. \$2.48.

An attractive text which should appeal to teachers and students.

Criminology. By Donald R. Taft. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1942. Pp. ix, 708. Illustrated. \$4.50.

A synthetic interpretation with a cultural emphasis.

Teaching the Social Studies. By Edgar B. Wesley. Boston, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1942, 2nd edition. Pp. xviii, 652, \$3.00.

A revision of a well-known text.

American Democracy Today and Tomorrow. By Ryllis A. Goslin, Omar Goslin, and Helen F. Storen. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1942. Pp. xviii, 589. Illustrated, \$2.12.

A text based on a genuine synthesis of economics, government and sociology, organized into nine units.

Man's Way: A First Book in Philosophy. By Henry Van Zandt Cobb. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1942. Pp. xv, 395. \$3.00.

Can be used for supplementary reading in social science surveys. Based on the view that the problems of philosophy issue from living situations which call for intelligent decisions.

An Appraisal of the Protocols of Zion. By John S. Curtiss. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. vi, 118. \$1.00.

A scholarly destruction of the credibility of the Protocols which purported to be the secret plans of Jewish leaders to enslave the entire world. May it settle the issue once and for all.

The Diffusion of English Culture Outside England. By H. V. Routh. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Pp. vi, 134. \$1.25.

This discerning little volume discusses the problems related to the propagation of English culture by such institutions as the British Council. It has much meaning for post-war reconstruction.

History and its Neighbors. By Edward M. Hulme. New York: Oxford University Press, 1942. Pp. 197. \$2.00.

In concise terms Part One discusses the nature and writing of history, Part Two, the relationship with other fields of study.